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THE

MISCELLANEOUS DOCUMENTS

OF THE

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

FOR THE

SECOND SESSION OF THE FIFTY-SECOND CONGRESS.

1892-'93.

IN THIRTY VOLUMES.

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1893.

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SPECIAL CONSULAR REPORTS.

AUSTRALASIAN

SHEEP AND WOOL.

REPORTS FROM THE CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES IN ANSWER TO A CIRCULAR FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE.

ISSUED FROM THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS, DEPARTMENT OF STATE

ALL REQUESTS FOR THESE REPORTS SHOULD BE ADDRESSED TO THE SECRETARY OF STATE.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1892.

AUSTRALASIAN SHEEP AND WOOL INDUSTRY.

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1. **Australia, by Consul General Wallace, of Melbourne.**
2. **New South Wales, by Consul Cameron, of Sydney.**
3. **New South Wales, by Consul Baggs, of Newcastle.**
4. **New Zealand, by Consul Conolley, of Auckland.**

ᴾECIAL CONSULAR REPORTS.

ᵢUSTRALASIAN SHEEP AND WOOL INDUSTRY.

1. AUSTRALIA.

ʀEPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WALLACE, OF MELBOURNE.

HISTORY OF THE INDUSTRY.

r a clear conception of the present methods, condition, and proba-
ıture of the sheep and wool industries of Victoria it will be neces-
to know of their origin, the conditions which have surrounded them,
the aid which has been extended them in their growth and devel-
ɜnt.

ı the sheep introduced into this colony came from New South Wales
Tasmania, and as the whole of Australia and Tasmania were at
time subject to the laws and regulations of one local government,
as the methods which obtained here in the beginning were the re-
ı of previous experiment and experience in these colonies, the fol-
ıg general description of the soil, climate, native plants, natural
itions, laws, regulations, breeds of sheep introduced and their sub-
ent breeding, the increase and improvement of these industries up
ıat time is herewith given.

is estimated that 2,500,000,000 pounds is the amount of the world's
uction of wool, and if this is approximately correct Australasia is
ıy marketing more than one-fifth of that supply. When sheep are
in the densely populated portions of the world, the first object of
ɔreeder is the production of mutton, wool being a secondary con-
ʼation; but such is not the case in Australia, and wool "light, open,
ɔy, with length, strength, and fineness of fiber," is the prime object,
it is probable that at least one-fourth of the wool used for clothing
oses to-day is produced here, and when we consider that the pres-
limension of the production of Australasia is the growth of but a
ıry, we are impressed with the reality that the natural conditions
ıing here must have been very favorable and special effort made to
re such development. Both have had their influence, but the in-
ve for the latter has been the advance in civilization in the past
ıry, the call for more and finer products of the loom, and conse-
t demand for suitable supplies for the mill.

Prior to the present century the production of the finest wool was confined chiefly to Spain, and the English manufacture of woolens was necessarily carried on upon a somewhat limited scale. It was contended by the trade that *fine* wool could be grown only in Spain, but this was decided by the receipt in England in 1803 of a small lot of wool from Sydney, in Australia, which was of such quality as to settle the question beyond dispute, and coming as it did at the critical moment when the growing demand for such wool seemed to be beyond the possibility of supply, Capt. Macarthur, who had made the shipment, was encouraged both by the trade and by a grant of 10,000 acres of land from the Government to continue his efforts towards increasing the Australian supply of this most necessary article for the enlargement of England's woolen industry. From that day to this there have been no backward steps, and untold wealth has been poured into the pockets of the squatters and people of Australasia by means of this industry.

This has not been accomplished, however, without a brave and persistent effort to overcome the obstacles inherent in the country, a patient study of the demands of the market, and a determination to make the most of the possibilities of the sheep, the soil, and the climate; but there can be no adequate conception of what has been accomplished, nor approximate opinion formed of the future of production here, without some knowledge of all the conditions which have either hindered or favored its development.

There was no conception in the minds of the early discovers of Australia of its being valuable or even inhabitable by civilized beings. The Chinese are supposed to have visited its shores a thousand years ago for certain kinds of fish found in the waters here, but no traces exist of their visits upon the land.

The first recorded visit of Europeans is that by the early Dutch navigators in 1616, who reported the country "one great flat of sand, without vegetation or trees, inhabited by cruel savages of the lowest type." In 1683 the celebrated buccaneer Dampier thus describes New Holland, as the Dutch had named Australia, to which he made a voyage in that year:

> The land is a dry sandy soil, destitute of water, except you make wells, yet producing divers sorts of trees; but the woods are not thick, nor the trees very big. There was pretty long grass growing under the trees, but it was very thin and coarse. The inhabitants of this country are the most miserable people in the world. Hottentots are gentlemen to these.

This judgment of the aboriginals was correct, for they have been found to be the lowest type of the human race, and they seem in this land, which produces neither fruits nor grains, to have been reduced by a struggle for bare existence nearly to the level of the brutes.

In 1769 Capt. James Cook, the distinguished English navigator, landed upon the eastern coast of Australia, at Botany Bay. From his description, the British Government determined to utilize the continent for penal settlements, but these were established with great difficulty.

The landings at Swan River, in West Australia, at Port Phillip, in Victoria, at Largs Bay, in South Australia, and at Botany Bay, in New South Wales, were abandoned one after another, owing to the barrenness of the soil and lack of fresh water, or other cause militating against settlement. A permanent landing was finally made on the shores of Port Jackson, where Sydney is now located, and it became the "mother colony," from which settlement has gone on until to-day the whole outer border of the continent has been explored and Europeans are settled upon all practicable places.

PHYSICAL FORMATIONS.

As the settlements were established, exploration of the interior was prosecuted, a general knowledge of the physical conformation of the land was obtained and found to be dissimilar from any other large portion of the globe, being very much like a plate; a large interior basin, elevated but little above the level of the ocean, interspersed with irregular ridges of basaltic rocks and ranges of sand hills, and having a general but slight inclination to the south. The outer rim or elevation, "dividing range" as it is locally called, varying in height from 3,000 to 7,000 feet and situated from 50 to 150 miles from the coast, extends around the whole island and is broken only in one place, where the drainage and occasional flood waters of the interior basin find an outlet to the sea. This break is located in South Australia, on the central southern coast.

Mr. Sydney Dickinson, writing in Scribner's Magazine for February, 1892, describes this outer circle of range and inner expanse of plain, as resembling a "tropic atoll, a great ring of fertile soil, surrounded by the barrenness of ocean, and inclosing in its turn a desolate sea of rock and sand. Dwellers upon the outer and inner slopes of this circle look upon similar horizons. One is formed of water, the other of land, but both are equally flat and unbroken, both suggest infinite spaces, and both tire the eye with the aspect of unrelieved monotony."

WATER AND RAINFALL.

It would appear as though the rain clouds, after gathering volume from the surrounding seas, were intercepted by this high outer range and discharged their contents upon its summits and slopes, leaving the great interior a wilderness of sand and drought.

Sir Thomas Elder's party of exploration sent to investigate this great internal basin, 1891–'92, reports having suffered extreme privation from want of water and grass, being at one time thirty-four days without the former, and the camels subsisting upon spinifix and other plants which grow only in sandy deserts.

This experience is but a repetition of that of all other efforts to explore the great interior, from that of the gallant Sturt in 1845 down to the present day. The streams originating on the interior slopes of the dividing range are described as being lost beneath the sandy soil, as

soon as they reach the general level of the interior. The want of water has been the greatest obstacle with which the woolgrower of Australia has had to contend, and the conservation of nature's supply, the hardest problem he has had to solve, upon the outer slopes as well as upon the interior, for the history of Australia shows recurring periods of drought over the whole continent.

The published official records show, taking the continent as a whole compared with other portions of the world, there is but a limited amount of rainfall, and this is probably owing to the location of Australia, in reference to prevailing winds, especially those from the portions of the world where rainclouds are formed by evaporation from the ocean, and also that the supply is very irregular.

There have been years together when the feed has been kept green the year round by frequent but light showers, yet several times during the history of the colonies there have been a number of consecutive years when there has been little or no rain, and that which fell came during a limited time, and its effect was soon lost. In some years, when the total for the year shows an average amount, it has come in disastrous floods, by which enormous losses have been sustained in the drowning of tens of thousands of sheep upon single stations.

This is especially true of the interior. One explorer reported finding Cooper's Creek, a torrent 40 miles wide and 25 feet in depth, while others perishing from thirst have sought up and down its course for miles, for water in holes even, without success. Sturt, in his first exploration, stood upon the banks of a shallow lake, which extended far beyond his vision from the highest point he could reach, and, in his second trip, having with great labor brought a boat for its exploration, no trace of the lake could be found.

Mr. T. A. Coglan, government statistician of New South Wales, gives the following estimate of territory in Australasia having a given amount of rainfall per year, based on the officially recorded observations of the several colonies up to 1889, and it is believed to be approximately correct:

Rainfall in Australasia.

[Total area, 3,161,470 square miles.]

Rainfall.	Australia.	Tasmania.	New Zealand.
	Square miles.	*Square miles.*	*Square miles.*
Under 10 inches	1,254,000	.....	.....
10 to 20 inches	867,200	9,440	.....
20 to 30 inches	411,300	.....	69,650
30 to 40 inches	232,100	8,380	17,410
40 to 50 inches	144,300	8,380	17,410
50 to 60 inches	49,300	.....	.....
60 to 70 inches	57,700	.....	.....
Above 70 inches	14,500	.....	.....

The location of these divisions is indicated by the following tables, compiled from reports of meteorological observations:

Recorded rainfall in 1890 between the seacoast and dividing range.

Colony and station.	Total.	Average.
	Inches.	*Inches.*
Queensland:		
Beenleigh	101.63	.....
Woodlands	126.25	.....
Townsville	100.29	.....
Cooktown	85.52	.....
New South Wales:		
Camden	40.37	24.46
Kiandra	72.92	64.80
Newcastle	76.26	46.98
Sidney	86.48	49.23
Victoria:		
Foster	49.55	53.23
Wands Dale	35.87	32.25
Melbourne	24.24	26.06
Dromana	28.21	27.86
South Australia:		
Palmerston	52.44	62.87
Katherine	46.86	39.07
Glencoe	44.82	34.49
Bungaree	41.58	21.28
West Australia:		
Fremantle	41.07	35.85
Augusta	39.14	34.03
Pinjarrah	46.58	40.50
Rottnest	42.25	37.14

Recorded rainfall in 1890 on the dividing range.

Colony and station.	Total.	Average.
	Inches.	*Inches.*
Queensland:		
Moondoolum	98.91	.....
Gympie	82.67	.....
Yengarrie	81.06	.....
Normanton	70.15	.....
New South Wales:		
Gulgong	46.09	24.40
Maitland	52.56	23.52
Warialda	45.72	26.68
Moree	41.16	22.46
Victoria:		
Bright	45.43	42.99
Woods Point	66.08	73.44
Nariel Creek	39.72	44.60
Macedon	34.95	35.49

In South Australia the dividing range is broken by the valley of the Murray River in the south and in the north or "Northern territory" there are no stations. West Australia is not settled far from the coast.

Recorded rainfall 1890 upon the interior basin.

Colony and station.	Total.	Average.
	Inches.	*Inches.*
Queensland:		
Welltown	8.91	.....
Blackdale	61.75	.....
Thargonimah	17.46	.....
Junction	79.11	.....
New South Wales:		
Thurlee	10.32	22.86
Broken Hill	13.51	16.58
Menindie	13.68	9.86
Mount Poole	13.32	8.90
Victoria:		
Piangil	14.32	13.96
Mildura	14.61	14.61
Durham Ox	23.17	15.96
L. Corrong	18.44	16.85
South Australia:		
Peake	7.16	5.38
Farina	8.54	5.95
Moonaree	10.88	7.03
Alice Springs	6.84	11.58

West Australia has no inland stations. The lack of water has entirely prevented settlement.

These observations show clearly the difference in natural supply of water, between the outer and inner slopes of the dividing range and the great interior basin. But, while they prove the meagerness of supply, they do not exhibit the necessity for or possibilities of conservation. This amount of rain might and sometimes does fall in frequent and light showers, to be absorbed by the thirsty soil and furnish no running water to be accumulated for watering stock, or as often happens, come with a sudden downpour which if not stored is soon lost, entailing suffering and loss before another supply is received.

These facts are illustrated by the following statistics, taken from the same authorities, showing the total amount for the year, the number of wet days, and greatest rainfall in one day:

*Average rainfall in principal Australian towns.**

Name.	Rain.	Rainfall.
	Days.	*Inches.*
Brisbane, Queensland	139	49.37
Sydney, New South Wales	147	49.17
Newcastle, New South Wales	113	46.98
Auckland, New Zealand	168	38.29
Portland, Victoria	185	33.63
Melbourne, Victoria	131	25.51
Hobart, Tasmania	141	23.46
Adelaide, South Australia	120	21.09

* Reported by Prof. R. L. J. Ellery, C. M. G., etc., Victorian government astronomer, Melbourne.

Large rainfalls in Victoria.

Station.	One day.	Date.
	Inches.	
Lillimur	3.77	Apr. 1, 1889
Booroopki	4.80	Apr. 2, 1889
Violet town	3.10	Apr. 7, 1889
Sunbury	5.02	Apr. 7, 1889
Colac	3.09	June 25, 1891
Camperdown	3.50	June 25, 1891
Caulfield	3.60	July 12, 1891
Dromana	3.41	July 12, 1891
Little Yarra	5.75	July 12, 1891
Warrandyte	4.86	July 12, 1891
Carrejung	5.52	Aug. 2, 1891
Walhalla	7.00	Aug. 4, 1891
Bulga	6.50	Aug. 3, 1891
Lakes Entrance	4.75	Jan. 14, 1892

There are, therefore, many wet days which occur throughout the year, freshen the feed and extend the period of its growth, and there are heavy rains when the squatter may, if he will, store sufficient water to carry his stock over a period of drought. The expense which this entails, and the many crop failures there have been from drought, have prevented the settlement of farmers upon small holdings, and permitted the continuation of the system of large holdings which prevails and is essential to the methods of sheep husbandry pursued.

TEMPERATURE AND HUMIDITY.

Two other characteristics of the climate of Australasia have had much to do with the development of the wool industry. These are, first, the temperature, and, secondly, the relative humidity of the atmosphere.

Except upon the elevations known as the Australian Alps, in the eastern parts of the continent, snow is almost unknown, and ice formed by nature equally so. In the extreme south of West Australia, South Australia, and throughout the greater part of Victoria frosts do sometimes occur, especially if the south wind blows immediately after a severe rain, but seldom or never is there enough to form ice. In addition to this is the radiation of heat from the great inland basin of sand and rocks, and the phenomenal north wind which blows at irregular periods from this interior over the southern portion of the continent, the effect of which is felt as far south as the southern shores of Tasmania, in latitude 43° S. The result of these tempering influences is a milder climate for Australia than that of lands in corresponding latitudes in the northern hemisphere.

The mean temperature of Australia ranges from 35° to 80° in July, the coldest month, and from 50° to above 95° F. in December. Dividing the land into zones of average summer and winter temperature, the following are the areas which would fall to each:

Winter average.		Summer average.	
Temperature.	Area.	Temperature.	Area.
°F.	*Square miles.*	°F.	*Square miles.*
35 to 40	300	50 to 55	300
40 45	39,700	55 60	66,300
45 50	88,000	60 65	111,300
50 55	635,300	65 70	74,300
55 60	701,300	70 75	373,600
60 65	858,200	75 80	453,000
65 70	529,700	80 85	756,500
70 75	284,500	85 90	588,400
75 80	24,500	90 95	602,400
		95 and over.	135,400

The north wind is spoken of by the people of Australia as "the withering breath of a furnace," but its effect is essential to the pastoral industry. Usually of a temperature of 90 to 110°, holding but little moisture and continuing for from twenty-four to seventy-two hours, it cures the standing grass, solidifying and retaining its nutritive properties so that its feeding qualities are not lessened, but rather concentrated and held ready for the squatter's use, obviating the necessity of providing hay or grain for the winter.

SOIL.

Evidence exists upon every hand that the continent of Australia is an upheaval of the bottom of the ocean and for a long period afterward was the scene of volcanic action. Enormous beds of lava, scoria, and pumice exist, and in many sections the soil plainly shows its lavatic

origin. There are evidences of great degradation of the higher ranges. Their denudation by floods has filled the narrow valleys with a rich soil and deep. In the tropical sections, this is composed largely of decomposed vegetable matter, but over the southern portion of Australia it is constituted principally of disintegrated minerals, which, though rich in elements necessary to vegetable growth, is comparatively thin, and successive crops of wheat or other grains appear to soon exhaust it. The early settlers found it loose and friable, but the depasturing of stock has compacted the soil and largely increased its productiveness. In a limited area it is underlaid with clay, but usually with sand or fine gravel; in the western half of the island, largely by broken limestone. It is of various qualities, according to the nature of the rock which forms the basis; in some places limestone prevails and occasionally forms a good soil; in others, whinstone, which is much better; in others, granite, with fragments of white quartz strewed upon the surface. In these the soil is weak and hungry, but dry and well adapted for sheep-grazing, being covered with a sweet, but thin herbage; in some places small ironstone not larger than pease may be found scattered over the surface. This, wherever it occurs, is a sure sign of a poor, hungry soil.

FLORA.

The flora of Australia was found to have a character of its own, and was very accurately described in Sir William Eden's history, published in 1787: "Every part of New Holland produces a variety of plants to enrich the collection of the botanist, but very few are of the esculent kind." Of trees the eucalyptus and acacia are the most common. Their coatings of bark are thick and numerous; hence they withstand, without loss of vitality, the forest fires to which they are so often subjected. They are all evergreen, many of them shedding their bark instead of their leaves and most of them being gorgeous with rich blossoms in the spring. The foliage is narrow and scanty, hangs vertically, and is of a deep blue-green color, producing a somber and monotonous aspect, and affords but little shade. The leaves contain but little pulp and are hard and stiff, with a glazed surface preventing evaporation. No sheep will eat eucalyptus leaves, though some of the acacia appear to be relished when young.

The leaves of the she oak (Casuarina, found throughout Australia), long, drooping, hair-like, are greedily eaten by all kinds of stock. It is called the "stayby" in times of drought. The foliage is acidulous from a crystallizable substance allied to bicitrate of lime. The chewing of it allays thirst. (Baron F. von Mueller.)

Numberless varieties of these, with ti-tree and other bushes peculiar to the soil, constitute the almost impenetrable and interminable Australian scrub, called, from the predominating bush or scrub, "Mallee" (*eucalyptus*), "Mulga" (*acacia*), "ti-tree" (*malaluca*), etc.

There were many kinds of native grasses, but most of them grew

under peculiarly favoring conditions of location, soil, or climate, were not large in extent, and under close pasturage many of them disappeared. The best grasses are grown on granite, whinstone, trap, or basaltic soil. None of the clover family was found in Australia.

In addition to the above, are the well-known "cotton bush" (*Kochia villosa* and others) and the "salt bush"(*Antriplex visicarium* and others), of which Baron F. von Mueller says : "Almost monopolizing the ground in the dry, arid interior, holding out in the utmost extremes of drought, and not scorched by sirocco-like blasts. Cattle, and especially sheep, are so fond of them that they often browse them to the ground. Splendid wool is produced where they are the only feed," etc. In its natural condition the carrying capacity of the soil varies greatly. In some sections it has required 14 acres per sheep, in others but one, depending greatly upon the rainfall.

FAUNA.

The Dingo, or native dog, was the only carnivorous animal large enough to harass sheep.

Such is a general description of the continent of Australia, of which Victoria is the southeastern corner, extending 480 miles from east to west and having a breadth of 200 miles from north to south. It includes both the outer and inner slopes of the dividing range, but not much of the interior basin, upon the southern border of which is the Murray River, the northern boundary of Victoria.

INTRODUCTION OF CONVICTS AND SHEEP.

It was to the eastern rim of this continent, in 1788, that Capt. Phillip, of the Royal Navy, brought his colony of convicts and with them, among other live stock, 29 sheep. As he had been eight months out of England, these were probably like his cattle obtained at the Cape of Good Hope, the last point at which he stopped, and of the common Cape breed. It was intended the colony should be self-supporting, and there may have been some idea of growing wool for clothing, but at the time, and for years afterwards, the struggle for food to support life was so great and the climate so mild that every energy was bent and official act directed to secure an increase in numbers for meat supplies. Free settlers were sent out from England to grow food for the convicts and were given grants of land, for which they were to pay 6*d.* per annum for each 30 acres for ten years, after which they obtained freehold title without charge. This was at a total cost of 2*d.*, or 4 cents, per acre, divided into ten annual payments.

In addition, convicts were allotted to them as servants, laborers, etc., fourteen being the number assigned to army officers. These liberal terms induced many officers to engage in agricultural or pastoral pursuits, who ultimately resigned and became large landholders and wealthy pastoralists. Among these was Capt. John Macarthur, who

has been called the originator and author of the wool industry of Australia. The astonishing results which followed his efforts make them of interest to sheep-breeders the world over, but they are not given with particularity in any published record obtainable. Capt. Macarthur himself furnishes the most complete account in a letter written in 1820 in reply to direct inquiries upon the subject. He says:

In 1794 I purchased from an officer sixty Bengal ewes and lambs which had been imported from Calcutta, and very soon afterwards I procured from the captain of a transport from Ireland two Irish ewes and a young ram. The Indian sheep produced coarse hair and the wool of the Irish sheep was then valued at no more than 9*d*. (18 cents) per pound. By crossing the two breeds I had the satisfaction to see lambs of the Indian ewes bear a mingled fleece of wool and hair. This circumstance originated the idea of producing fine wool in New South Wales.

In 1796 two sloops of war were sent to the Cape of Good Hope, and as their commanders were friends of mine I requested them to inquire if there were any wool-bearing sheep at the Cape. At the period of their arrival there was a flock of Merino sheep for sale, from which about twenty were purchased. These sheep were derived from animals of the celebrated Escurial flock presented by the king of Spain to the Dutch Government, and sent by the latter to the Dutch colony at the Cape. (See House of Commons Papers, 1837, p. 334). Of these I was favored with five ewes and three rams. * * * In a year or two after I had an opportunity of augmenting my flocks by the purchase from Col. Foveaux of 1,200 sheep of the common Cape breed.

It was a selected lot of wool from the produce of these crosses that Capt. Macarthur carried with him to England in 1803, and which attracted so much attention among manufacturers as to induce them to secure for him the favorable notice of the government and resulted in his returning to the colony with a patent for 10,000 acres of land and four pure-bred Merino sheep from King George the Fourth's flock, the descendants of those received by the king from the Spanish Cortez.

Tasmania, formerly known as Van Diemans land, was colonized from New South Wales on the 10th of August, 1803, as a subsidiary penal settlement, and, along with convicts, was furnished with live stock for their maintenance. "The sheep were a mixture of Teeswater, Leicester, and Bengal breeds." (West's History of Tasmania, page 72.)

The captain of the ship *Regalia*, lying at Hobart in 1819, accepted Tasmanian wool in exchange for merchandise; it had no market value, was assessed 3*d* a pound duty in England, when wool from other countries paid 6*d* per pound, but the speculation was a failure, owing probably to the sheep having still a large preponderance of Bengal blood.

TASMANIAN WOOL.

The lieutenant governor, Col. Patterson, determined to improve its quality and arranged with Macarthur, of Sidney, to send 300 rams of his improved flock at £5 per head to Tasmania, for which he was to accept 4,368 acres of land at 7*s*. 6*d*. per acre. These arrived November 27, 1819, but more than half of them had died in transport and the balance were distributed by lot to settlers who gave their engagements to repay at the stipulated sum.

The English duty of 3*d.* per pound on colonial wool was, "on the recommendation of the commissioner, reduced to 1*d.* per pound," making a difference of 5*d.* (10 cents) per pound in the duty as between colonial and foreign wool, the duty on foreign wool being 6*d.* This gave a great impetus to the industry of wool-growing in the colonies, and syndicates were organized in England for its prosecution.

To Mr. Henry Hopkins, of London, the public are indebted for the first appreciation of Tasmanian wool. He bought in 1821 twelve bales at 4*d.* per pound, which sold in London at 7*d.* per pound, or £88; the expenses were nearly half that sum. In 1823, 550 bales were exported in the *Deveron*, and an equal number in other vessels, and "the wool of Claredon (Tasmania) rivalled the flocks at Port Jackson." (See West's History of Tasmania, p. 73.)

By the official muster in 1810, the number of sheep in Van Diemans land is given as 3,070; in 1818, as 127,883; in 1819, as 172,128; and in 1820, as 182,468. (See Bischoff's Van Dieman's Land, pp. 44 and 103.)

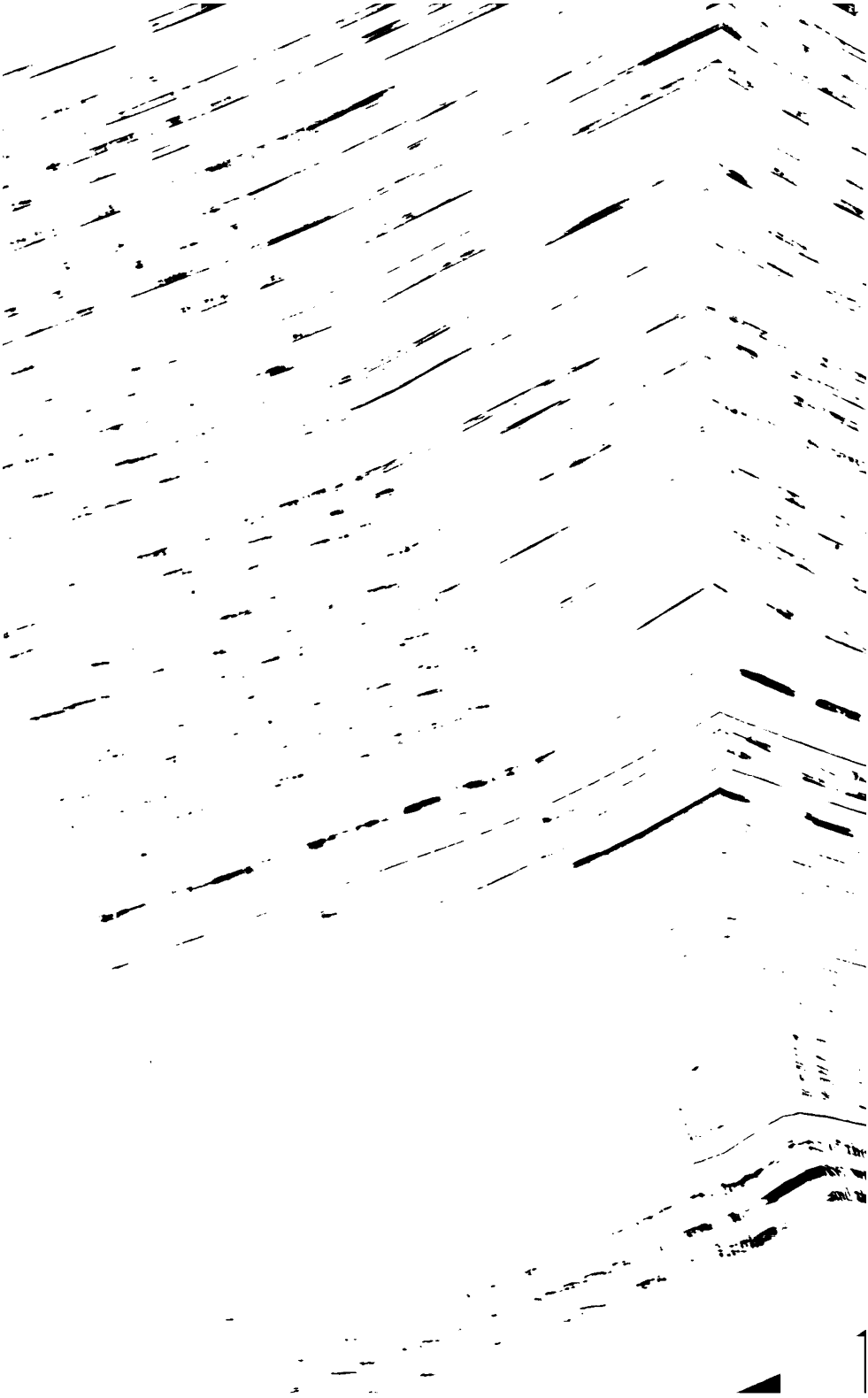
By special acts of Parliament in 1824, two companies were organized in England for pastoral operations in the South Seas, known respectively as the "Van Diemans Land Company" and "The Australian Agricultural Company;" both engaged actively in exporting improved breeding stock to the colonies, the former to Van Diemans Land and the latter to New South Wales, especially English Merino sheep from the flock at Kew, descended from the Spanish Merino received by George IV from the Spanish Cortez in the last century.

There is mention in the colonial publications of the day, 1820 to 1830, of the importation into Tasmania: March 27, 1820, of "rams from Macarthur's flock at Sydney." March 20, 1821, "by the ship *Emerald*, of many pure Merino rams from England." August 11, 1823, "by ship *Renwick*, of many pure Merino rams from England." September 24, 1823, "by ship *Mariner*, of 66 pure Merino rams from flock of late Marquis of Londonderry, from England." February 4, 1824, "The *William Shand* brought 128 pure Merino sheep from the flocks of Sir John Sebright, bart., for Thomas Austey and Richard Willis, also 88 ditto per *Aquillar*, for William Archer and others." May 12, 1826, "Importation of 40 sheep per ship *Albion*, from England and the Cape." October 6, 1826, "Arrival of Van Diemans Land Coy's ship *Tranmire* with sheep, etc., from England." February 9, 1828, "Van Diemans Land Coy's ship *Caroline* arrived at Launceston with 200 pure Merino sheep." March 29, 1828, "240 pure Saxon Electoral rams and ewes, imported from Germany by W. Bunston."

SHEEP CENSUS OF NEW SOUTH WALES AND VAN DIEMANS LAND.

John Thomas Bigge, commissioner of inquiry into the state of New South Wales and Van Diemans Land (Blue Book, 1823), says:

The breed of sheep now prevailing in Van Diemans Land was derived from a flock imported by Col. Paterson (commandant of the northern settlement at Port Dal-



rymple, 1804–1806) from New South Wales. These sheep were of the Teeswater breed and have since received a slight admixture with the sheep of the Leicester breed and with sheep that have been imported from Bengal. Of the latter there are few remaining and the traces are nearly extinct.

The Van Dieman's Land Coy's report (1832) says:

The company had stud flocks of the best Saxon, Nigretti, Leicester, and Cotswold breeds. By rams from the stud flocks they had improved the coarse fleeces of the Van Diemans Land sheep purchased in the island.

Curr's account of Van Diemans Land (1824) at page 66:

In 1823 the price of a breeding flock of ordinary description, not improved by much crossing with Merino, was 20*s*. to 25*s*. per head. Rams possessing a strong cross of the Merino sold at from £5 to £7 per head.

Widowson's Present State of Van Dieman's Land (1829), at page 142, gives an amusing description of the sheep composing the early flocks. He says:

Mr. Gillies, of Merton Vale, has imported several of the finest and best bred Saxons ever sent out of Germany. Prices of good ewes, according as they have been improved, 20*s*. to 30*s*. Nearly pure Merinos are out of the reach of most settlers.

The most careful research fails to discover reference to any flock as possessing pure blood of any one breed.

The rapidity of the growth of the industry may be gathered from the following tables of the number of sheep in the two colonies and the amount of wool exported from each, compiled from a variety of sources, but believed to be approximately correct:

Total number of sheep in all the colonies: 1800, 6,124; 1810, 25,888; 1821, 209,158.

Return of the quantity of sheep's wool shipped from the colonies, during the years 1807 to 1831.

Year.	New South Wales.	Van Diemans Land.	Both colonies.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1807	245	.....	.....
1808	562	.....	.....
1811	167	.....	.....
1815	82,971	.....	.....
1816	73,171	.....	.....
1817	13,616	.....	.....
1818	86,525	.....	.....
1819	74,284	.....	.....
1820	99,415	.....	.....
1821	.....	.....	175,443
1822	.....	.....	172,880
1823	.....	.....	198,240
1824	.....	.....	275,560
1825	.....	.....	323,995
1826	.....	.....	552,900
1827	320,683	195,075	515,758
1828	967,814	528,845	1,496,659
1829	912,322	925,320	1,838,642
1830	937,330	993,979	1,931,309
1831	1,134,134	1,359,203	2,493,337

In addition to the efforts made to improve the breeding of the sheep, special instructions for the preparation of wool for market were sent out to the colonists by the dealers in wool in England and the cost of

freight on dirt, dust, and grease was pointed out as inducement for the washing and selection of wool before shipment, and in this was the origin of the practices of skirting and sorting which have since been carried to so great an extreme. Murray's Austral-Asiatic Review, Vol. I, No. 3, published at Hobart in June, 1828, contains an address or circular from Messrs. Donaldson, Wilkinson & Co., Old Broad Street, London, dated September, 1827, as follows:

* * * We beg earnestly to impress on the holders of sheep in New South Wales and Van Diemans Land, the importance of their having the utmost attention exercised in washing their flocks, and of their fleeces being packed for the London market free of the coarser parts, and divested, as much as may be possible, of all soil, impurity, and damaged locks, assuring them that attention to these points will make a material difference in the proceeds of their consignments, not only by increasing the worth of the quantity sent, but in lessening the charge of the worse than useless freight. D. W. & Co. would also urge on all flock masters the essential importance of improving the quality of their fleeces by judicious crossing from rams of the purest breed, as may be most congenial to the situation and character of the sheep.

Directions for this assorting are given in the Van Diemans Land Anniversary, 1831:

In order to assimilate the Australian wool as much as possible with the German in preparing it for market, the fleeces should not be broken, but merely divested of the breech and stained locks, and so assorted and arranged that each package may contain fleeces of the same character as to color, length of staple, fineness of hair, and general quality.

In the Van Diemans Land Almanac for 1833, as follows:

We shall now suppose the wool collected into a barn or outhouse. Here the fleeces should be assorted, and if the collection is small they may be divided into two classes by separating the better from the inferior. Should the collection, however, be large, we would advise the farmer to cast them into three or four classes, according to the number and description of the fleeces of his flock. He would even do well to keep the wether fleeces by themselves, and also the Hoggett fleeces separate from the rest, when the remainder should be cast, according to their quality, into two or three classes. As soon as this operation is completed, the following process should take place: They should be unfolded one by one on a table or counter and the coarser extremities should be taken off. They should have the yellow bits picked off; the remaining part should be rolled up and packed into bags.

SHEEP SETTLEMENTS IN VICTORIA.

The flock masters and settlers in locating new "runs" had sought for land as free from undergrowth and clear of timber as possible, the cost of clearing in the manner then pursued being too great with the capital at their command. By the year 1833 all of the available ground in Van Diemans Land was occupied with their 800,000 sheep, and the increasing flocks demanded more room. Rumors from whaling vessels of a fine, open grassy country across Bass Straits to the north gained strength, and the Messrs. Henty, of Launceston, in 1834 sent a number of sheep over to Portland Bay, nearly 200 miles west of Port Phillip, and formed a settlement in that fine part of the territory now known as

Victoria. In 1835 John Batman, representing a company of Launceston merchants and stockmen, landed on the shores of Port Phillip, followed by John Pascoe Fawkner, and the report of their success induced others to follow.

The news of this settlement soon reached Sydney, and the descriptions of the country found turned the attention of the people of New South Wales to that part of Australia. Richer soil and better grass, lying on the seashore, saving expensive carriage from the far interior, were inducements which brought a rush of settlers and stock, which spread over the land.

The government at Sydney sent a resident magistrate to administer the laws. The land law then in force emanated from the colonial office in London in 1824, and was as follows:

[From Atkinson's State of Agriculture in New South Wales, London, 1826.]

1. A division of the whole territory into counties, hundreds, and parishes is in progress. When the division shall be completed, each parish will comprise an area of about 25 miles. A valuation will be made of the lands throughout the colony and an average price will be struck for each parish.

2. All the lands in the colony, not hitherto granted and not appropriated for public purposes, will be put up for sale at the average price thus fixed.

3. All persons proposing to purchase lands must transmit a written application to the governor in a certain prescribed form, which will be delivered at the surveyor-General's office to all persons applying, on payment of a fee of 2*s*. 6*d*.

4. All correspondence with the local government, respecting grants of land, must take place through the same office.

5. The purchase money is to be paid by four quarterly instalments. A discount of 10 per cent will be allowed for ready-money payments.

6. On payment of the money a grant will be made in fee simple to the purchaser at the nominal quit rent of a pepper corn.

7. The largest quantity of land which will be sold to any individual is 9,600 acres. The lands will, generally, be put up to sale in lots of three square miles, or 1,920 acres. Persons wishing to make more extensive purchases must apply to the secretary of state, in writing, with full explanations of their objects and means.

8. Any purchaser who, within ten years after his purchase, shall, by the employment and maintenance of convicts, have relieved the public from a charge equal to ten times the amount of the purchase money, will have the purchase money returned, but without interest. It will be computed that for each convict employed and wholly maintained by the purchaser for twelve months, £16 have been saved to the public.

9. Lands may also be obtained without purchase, but upon different conditions.

10. Persons desirous to become grantees without purchase, will make their application to the governor, in writing, in a prescribed form, copies of which are to be obtained at the surveyor-general's office, on payment of two shillings and six pence.

11. The largest grant that will be made, without purchase. is 2,560 acres; the smallest, 320 acres.

12. No grant is to be made to any person without purchase, unless the governor is satisfied that the grantee has both the power and the intention of expending, in the cultivation of the lands, a capital equal to half the estimated value of it.

13. A quit rent of 5 per cent per annum upon the estimated value will be fixed upon the land granted without purchase.

14. The quit rent will be redeemable within the first 25 years next following the grant, on payment of a sum equal to twenty times the annual amount of it.

15. In the redemption of his quit rent, the grantee will have credit for one-fifth part of the sums which he may have saved to His Majesty's government by the employment and maintenance of convicts; and for the purpose of making this allowance, it will be calculated that the government has saved £16 for each convict employed by the grantee, and wholly maintained at his expense on his land for one whole year.

16. Until the expiration of the first seven years, next succeeding each grant, without purchase, no quit rent will become due upon the land comprised in it.

17. Every guaranty without purchase must, at the expiration of the before-mentioned term of seven years, prove to the satisfaction of the surveyor-general that he has expended in the cultivation and improvement of his land, a capital equal to half its value as that value was estimated at the time of his grant; on the failure of such proof, the land will be forfeited to the crown.

18. No additional grant of land will be made to any person who has not proved, as last mentioned, the necessary expenditure of capital on the lands already granted to him.

19. Persons receiving a second grant of land, without purchase, will become liable to pay a quit rent upon the lands comprised in such second grant, immediately from the date of it.

20. Persons desiring to receive grants of land, without purchase, on terms different from those above stated, must lay before the secretary of state a full explanation, in writing, of the circumstances which they may conceive to exempt them from the fair operation of these general rules.

COLONIAL OFFICE, DOWNING STREET, *November, 1824.*

[From Rankin's Dominion of Australia, 1846, page 61.]

The limitless country was open to any settlement for any purpose in those days. The bread-producer was welcome to the land and many servants if he would fully employ and take charge of this dangerous prison labor, and the grazier was welcome to the interior upon payment of a nominal fee without limit of area or stock, without let or hindrance in any direction. Under the latter system has arisen squatting.

William Westgarth, M. L. C. of Victoria, in a history of Victoria, published in 1853, chapter 4, thus describes the origin of the system of squatting and the term "squatter:"

The title, where it has come into use in other parts of the world, represents for the class to which it applies but a moderate status in the social scale. Although the case is now very different in Australia, no great interval has elapsed since a similarity of association prevailed there also. The Australian squatter in earlier times was a sort of semioutcast of society, a Robin Hood or Rob Roy, with the distinction of everything being degrading and nothing elevating in his career; in short, generally an old convict of the penal settlement of New South Wales, who planted himself on the highways or in the corners of colonial estates, where, under pretense of depasturing live stock on the unsold Crown lands, he carried on a system of plunder upon all around him. But with the growth of the colony increased also the importance of the vocation of depasturing stock upon these boundless domains. Accordingly in 1836 an act was passed by the New South Wales legislature imposing a small semiannual assessment upon live stock to defray the expense of a mounted police who should protect the squatting districts. This drove out and suppressed the lawless element, and as the Port Phillip settlement was commenced just prior to this, squatting became the chief interest of the new district.

At first, these squatters located only upon the banks of such living water courses as were to be found, but their success soon led others to undertake wool growing, and the immense tracts of fine pasture land lying between the streams were occupied. This back country could only be availed of by an artificial supply of water; so dams and wells were made, every acre of grass or herbage was fed as far into the interior as the water supply could be found or readily conserved.

In 1855 the number of licensed stations was 1,029 in various districts. On these runs rather more than half a million of horned cattle, and rather more than four and a half millions of sheep were fed. (Government of Victoria, Edward Jenks, M. A., 1891.)

The system pursued by the squatters differed very greatly from that of the present day, but was such as suited their abilities and their surroundings. A shepherd was given a flock of sheep up to one thousand in number, who with a "hut keeper" was sent into the bush assigned to his flock, furnished with a bark hut and movable hurdles, inclosing a sufficient amount of ground to pen his flock at night. The hut keeper was cook, and at the same time watched the flock at night to protect it from the depredations of "dingoes," the wild dogs. It was also his duty to change the hurdles to new and clean ground as often as it became necessary. The various flocks were visited by the squatter or his manager once a week, and at some central point called the "station" pens were made of brush or hurdles for yarding the sheep at shearing time, a shearing shed, storehouse, and other necessary buildings constructed, usually of messmate bark.

In this dry climate, with the exercise obtained in search of food during the entire twelve months, the sheep were remarkably free from disease. But in the bush ticks (*Melophagus ovinus*) were found to be very numerous, to such an extent as to seriously affect the condition of the sheep unless destroyed. In addition the scab (*Psoroptes communes*) had been brought with the sheep from Tasmania. So at shearing all were treated for the destruction of these insect pests. The following receipt, taken from the Tasmanian Almanac, 1833, was generally used:

SCAB IN SHEEP.

Mr. Clater's celebrated ointment.

Quicksilver, one pound; Venice turpentine, half apound; spirit of turpentine, two ounces; work these well together in a marble mortar, until the mercury is well incorporated and the globules of quicksilver become invisible when rubbed on paper, which may require five or six hours' active friction.

Then take four pounds of hogs' lard and melt it over a slow fire, and when new-milk warm, add to it the quicksilver, and keep constantly stirring it until it grows cold; * * * it tends to destroy filth, promote health, and cause them to thrive much faster. The ointment should be kept stiff, if necessary, by the substitution of one pound of black rosin in lien of one pound of lard. The wool is to be divided from the head to the tail and the ointment slightly rubbed in.

WASHING AND SCOURING.

All of the early accounts of sheep husbandry in Australasia give elaborate descriptions of modes of washing the wool before shearing, and as streams are few and water scarce, this was generally done, by first sprinkling the sheep until the wool was thoroughly saturated, then in an hour or two the sheep was rinsed with water from a spout with not less than 10 feet of pressure. It was even proposed to steam the sheep and afterwards to subject them to a washing or rinsing, under a spout of water. But when the flocks spread out over the country where water could not be had for the purpose, the practice of washing was abandoned, and in stead, close skirting was resorted to, and the fleece was shipped "in the grease," while the stained pieces were sent to scouring establishments, which were erected on suitable sites in different sections of the colony.

The shearing time was the busy season at the station. In New South Wales and Tasmania this labor was performed by the indentured servants, but as these were not to be had in Victoria shearers were sought for in every direction, who with the shepherds might prepare the wool for market. Small farmers near the seacoast and men from many other callings were pressed into the service for the two or three months required to complete the work. In this manner there has been developed a class of men known as "shearers," who, now that the sheep industry extends from the twenty-first degree of latitude in Queensland to the forty-second in Tasmania, finds shearing to do for nine months of the year.

SQUATTERS AND LEASERS.

As the squatter had but little capital and no constant work for teams he owned none, but hired bullock teams from men who made carrying their occupation, to transport his supplies (consisting of everything but meat) to the station, and loaded back with his clip of wool. This system is continued to the present day, the depot being removed from Melbourne to the terminus of the railroads as they have been built.

In ten years the numbers of the sheep in Victoria had increased to such an extent that the land immediately available for squatting was occupied, and there was no longer a ready market for aged and surplus stock. In the early days 20*s.* or even 40*s.* ($5 to $10) per head had been realized, but prices had declined, and thousands were killed, the pelt alone being utilized. In 1845 the system of boiling down was introduced into the colony, and "this was the savior and restorer of the sheep industry. It was ascertained 1,000 sheep would yield 15,000 pounds of tallow, which found a ready market in England, and the expense from first to last, amounting to about 10*d.* per head, for killing, skinning, and steaming, was covered by the value of the pelt." (Reminiscences of Australia, C. P. Hodgson, p. 111.)

Sometime between 1836 and 1840 the land regulations, which had been established in 1824, were changed and in such manner as to make the acquiring of large tracts qufte feasible.

The squatter selected a section and applied to the commissioners of the crown lands for a depasturing lease, describing in the application as nearly as possible the boundaries of the run, and giving the number of square miles claimed; this secured the run for six months, and afterwards an annual license of £10 ($50) per thousand acres was paid, a lease was obtained for fourteen years, with a right of renewal, and compensation for improvements on the termination of the terms. (Australia as It Is, p. 256 to 259.)

Leases were transferred, although contrary to law, and when gold was discovered those who became infected with the fever parted with their holdings for a song and stations were thus enlarged. But a discretionary power had been vested in the governor, in the beginning of the colony, of alienating lands within certain limits in whatever way might appear to him most likely to promote the settlement and general improvement of the colony. In this manner the regulations framed from time to time became very complex, and there were additional grants, reserves for purchase, and many other methods by which private individuals became the holders and ultimately the possessors of tracts of land which are measured by the hundreds of square miles.

During the decade 1855 to 1865 there was again a rush for stations, caused by the high prices obtained for wool. The building of railroads, which had been begun, brought the back country nearer to market. Again there was a rush for the interior, and sheep were driven over hundreds of miles of desert in search of new runs. Stations were established at mere shallow pools where the pasture was little more abundant than usual. The scant feed was often saliferous and always fattening. The rainfall was an unknown quantity, but the first few seasons were favorable and permanent improvements, in the way of tanks, dams, wells, yards, and buildings, were made. Then came the long drought, which will always be remembered in Australia. The water in the shallow lakes, 30 or 40 miles in circumference, vanished, wells gave in, the grass altogether disappeared, and stock began to die. The retreat began. Thousands upon thousands of sheep died and most of the squatters in the new country were ruined.

In the older sections the first rush to the gold fields was over, and investments were sought in the pastoral industry, as one offering greater security and at the same time larger returns than any other.

Under the system of government leases, and the varying qualities of the stations, in the location, soil, feed, water supply, and improvements, the measure of the value of a squatter's holding was the number of sheep it would carry. Sales were made, not of so many acres or square miles of territory, although the deeds or title to these were transferred by the sale, but of so many sheep at so much per head. Purchases were made, often without either the station or sheep being seen, or at the

best, with the most cursory examination. The principal point insisted upon was that there should be so many sheep. These were driven into the drafting yards at the station and counted—even this was sometimes omitted, and the number shorn at shearing time was taken as the measure of the value of the run.

System in breeding was not studied generally. It was customary to study increase only, to get numbers, and the exceptional squatter who was always improving his wool was often considered to be devoting his time to a trifle; no wool was believed to be equal to large increase. Stations bred their own rams and selected them on little or no principle. If any crossing occurred it was with the nearest neighbor's sheep, not by any chance with the best adapted animals, and the advantages immediate or future of crossing or of selection were never regarded. But runs, becoming stocked, compelled attention to this; if only a certain number of fleeces could be grown, it became desirable to have these fleeces as good as possible. The rapid increase of the stock of the country while wool was still high depressed the value of all sheep, except the best wool producers, and these, on gaining notice, rose immediately in value. (Dominion of Australia, p. 81.)

WOOL IMPROVEMENT.

The high value of clothing or fine wools in 1860, called particular attention to the necessity for improvement. This made a demand which was met by the importation of Ramboulet blood from France, of Negretti blood from Saxony, and the American merino, especially of Grimes blood, from the United States, particularly the two latter. Fineness of fiber and density of fleece were sought, and, to secure them, sheep of these breeds were eagerly bought, high prices paid for them, and they were carried to all parts of the country.

Subsequently, the longer wools came into fashion, and increased attention was given to breeding. Length of staple was added as a needed qualification in rams. This was the opportunity of the Australian breeder, and he confidently called attention to Australian bred sheep as possessing the qualities demanded, and, being acclimated, as much better fitted to meet the wants of the woolgrower than any imported "pedigreed" sheep which could be found. The men who had been derided as wasting their energies and time upon a trifle now began to reap a reward for their years of patient effort and careful study in improving their wool. They had developed flocks having good constitutions, showing a uniformity in size and form, possessing fleeces, of great density and fineness of fiber with a long staple of great strength, regular crimp, and a gloss or sheen bright and showy. These Australian bred rams were brought to certain central points in competition for prizes, and, after being judged by disinterested experts were sold at auction to the highest bidder. The exhibitions and sales were not a matter of two days, but generally of two weeks or more. They were attended by hundreds of breeders and woolgrowers, not only of the neighborhood or colony, but from the several colonies, and resulted in great good. There was careful comparison and study of characteristics, interchange of thought and experiences, and represen-

tatives of the wool buyers were there to describe the qualities of the wool which would bring the highest price and was most in demand.

Woolgrowers were thus taught what was possible and how to achieve it. In this manner there has developed a concensus of opinion as to the type of sheep best adapted to the climate, soil, and existing conditions. If, in addition to this accord of ideas and the equable climate and common feed, it is taken into consideration that the flocks of Australia were all large in numbers—20,000, 50,000, 100,000, sometimes even 500,000—being under the control of one man, guided by such teaching, it can readily be understood why the wool of Australia is so uniform in quality.

WOOL SORTING FOR MARKET.

Yet, notwithstanding this uniformity, an inspection of a report of sales will show a wide variation in prices obtained for Australian wool. This is owing, to a very great extent, to differences in condition. Beginning in 1820 there has been, to a greater or less degree, a constant improvement in the preparation of wool for market. The great distance from the markets of the world and consequent expense in freight urged this improvement, but there has also grown up a friendly spirit of rivalry to "top the market." A measure of the value of a studbreeder's flock was the price obtained for his wool, and he spared no pains or expense to attain the enviable position of "top figures." The greatest factor in determining the value per pound of a fleece of wool is the per cent of shrinkage or loss it will sustain in being scoured, and it was found the larger part of this loss was sustained from the extremities or rim of the fleece; so the skirting, which originally consisted in removing only the stained portions, was enlarged and a portion was removed from the legs and a strip around the whole outside of the fleece, which was called pieces.

There was also another reason for this increased skirting in the trefoil bur, which was introduced from South America. This spread over many of the runs, and, being a low-growing plant, became attached to the fleece when the sheep lay down. The presence of this bur decreased the value of the wool in which it was found 2*d.* (4 cents) per pound, and the practice grew into always removing burry portions. As this practice was extended to a greater or less degree, there was obtained a third "sort" of wool for market. But the spirit of rivalry among both breeders and woolgrowers brought about a still greater amount of "skirting," and the neck being slightly coarser wool was torn from the fleece and added to the pieces. The odds and ends and sweepings were sacked separately and called "locks." The custom of the Melbourne market in 1860 was to put up the entire clip from any one station and sell as one lot, including all fleeces, lambs, pieces, and locks. The price at which it sold was so much per pound for the fleeces and lambs' wool, two-thirds of such price for the pieces, and one-

half of the same for the locks. All wool at this time was washed on the sheep's back. To-day, at shearing, the sorter is often a highly-paid man who has been educated in a mill in England, is an adept in classifying, sorting, and judging wool. His skill is such that the fleece after passing through his hands is, as stated in the Manufacturer, published in Philadelphia January 2, 1892, "so well skirted on the station as to need no sorting at the mill and the shrinkage is reduced from 48 to 52 per cent." Under the manipulations of this expert the classes and sorts of wool known and quoted in the Colonial markets have constantly grown in numbers and are as follows:

Description of wool known in the Melbourne market.

[Reported by the New Zealand Loan and Mercantile Agency Company, Limited.]

Merino fleece.

Wethers: First, second, and third combing, and also as first, second, and third clothing.

Ewes: First, second, and third combing, and also as first, second, and third clothing.

Hoggets: First, second, and third combing, and also as first, second, and third clothing.

Fine cross bred or Comback fleeces.

Wethers: First, second, and third combing, and also as first, second, and third clothing.

Ewes: First, second, and third combing, and also as first, second, and third clothing.

Hoggets: First, second, and third combing, and also as first, second, and third clothing.

Crossbred fleece.

Wethers: First, second, and third combing, and also as first, second, and third clothing.

Ewes: First, second, and third combing, and also as first, second, and third clothing.

Hoggets: First, second, and third combing, and also as first, second, and third clothing.

Lambs' fleece.

First, second, and third lambs; sometimes in addition a top, as super lambs.

Pieces.

Wethers: First and second pieces.

Ewes: First and second pieces, and sometimes third pieces.

Hoggets: First and second pieces.

Sometimes also designated as A, B, and C, or as A, A. A, and AAA.

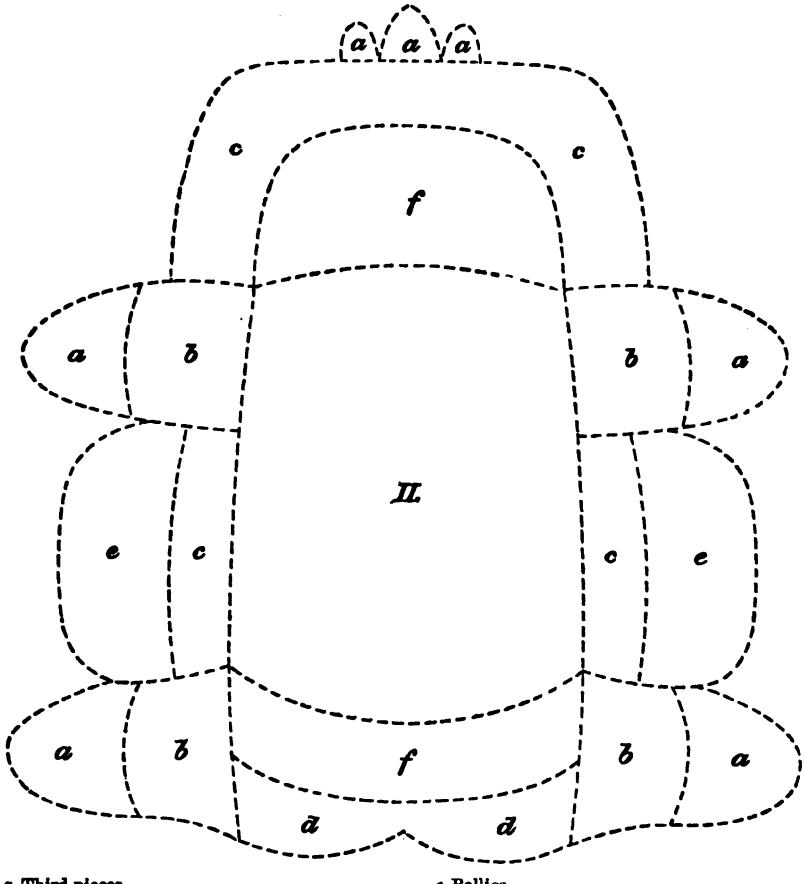
"Dingy fleeces," "ram's fleeces," "black fleeces," "broken fleeces," "tender fleeces," "necks and skirts," "bellies," "stained pieces," and "locks," which are sometimes divided into first and second locks.

In lamb's wool the "pieces," "stained pieces," "bellies," "locks," and also "black fleeces" are kept separately.

Scoured wool is generally classed and offered as first, second, or third scoured wool, or as first, second, or third scoured skin, *i. e.*, pulled wool.

These one hundred and ten classes and sorts exhibit the extreme to which this work has been carried. The fleece classification will be readily understood, but for the better understanding of the other terms used, the accompanying diagram, prepared by an expert classer, is given:

An Australian sorted fleece.



a Third pieces.
b Second pieces.
c First pieces (necks and skirts.
d Stained pieces.
e Bellies
f Broken fleece.
H Fleece.

"Dingy fleeces" are those which for any reason are dark in color, but not otherwise faulty. "Rams' fleeces," being heavier (*i. e.*), larger shrinkage) and stronger wool, are always classed by themselves. "Black fleeces" are always sold by themselves. "Tender fleeces," those having a weak place in the fiber, however clean and bright, are thrown out by the classer. "Locks" are the result of double cuts by the shearers and the sweepings from the floor of the shearing shed.

That each breeder or woolgrower might have the benefit of his labors in "classing," "sorting," and "skirting," the practice early obtained of

marking with stencil every bale with the name by which the station was known, as "Ercilldoun," "Barooga," etc., and even the selector, with but two or three "fadges," as sacks of unassorted and unpacked wool are called, has each his private mark.

The percentage of each class and sort of the clip of any flock varies greatly, depending not only upon the breeding of the sheep, but upon the manner in which they have been kept and the country over which they graze.

The published statement of each in a stud flock of the Riverina section, as it is located in average good country, details of the flock with all particulars being given, and as the lighter portions of this clip have been bought for a number of years for export to the United States, has been selected as a typical one.

Average sheet, Boonoke, 1883.

Flock.	First combing.	Second combing.	Clothing.	Dingy and black.	Broken fleece.	First pieces.	Bellies pressed.
	Cwt. qr. lb.	*Cwt. qr. lb.*	*Cwt. qr. lb.*	*Cwt. qr. lb.*	*Cwt. qr. lb.*	*Cwt. qr. lb.*	*Cwt. qr. lb*
Stags	69 0 11	12 3 16	6 2 5	.....	23 1 12	18 1 21	11 2 25
Wethers	165 3 22	15 1 2	0 2 19	.....	37 3 16	25 3 9	7 1 13
Single stud ewe weaners	107 0 17	6 1 22	0 1 5	.....	25 1 19	7 2 24	7 3 7
Flock stud ewe weaners	146 1 23	10 2 11	3 2 7	.....	43 3 26	7 2 13	.....
Old stud crawlers	.....	.....	32 0 25	.....	.....	4 2 19	.....
Extra stud ewes	71 2 2	0 2 6	0 1 3	.....	14 1 26	2 1 21	.....
Single stud ewes	259 1 2	14 2 21	1 1 9	1 1 9	101 3 1	12 0 2	.....
Flock ewes	228 3 1	16 1 3	.....	6 2 13	144 3 10	24 0 26	.....
Flock ewe weaners	113 1 13	7 1 0	0 3 6	.....	50 3 12	7 2 10	.....
Culls and killing sheep	59 0 10	6 3 0	.....	5 0 9	56 3 13	5 3 27	.....
Rams	24 3 26	21 2 2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Totals	1,266 3 8	112 0 27	45 3 5	11 2 22	496 1 23	116 1 22	26 3 17
Per cent each	.4741	.0420	.0171	.0043	.1857	.0435	.0100

Flock.	To be scoured.			Totals.	Pounds.	Sheep.	Average per sheep.
	Stained.	Bellies.	Locks.				
	Cwt. qr. lb.	*Cwt. qr. lb.*	*Cwt. qr. lb.*	*Cwt. qr. lb.*		*No.*	*Lb. ozs.*
Stags	21 0 17	12 3 9	14 0 15	210 0 19	23,539	2,067	11 6½
Wethers	27 0 12	28 1 23	19 1 15	327 3 19	36,727	3,196	11 8
Single stud ewe weaners	9 3 7	9 1 10	9 3 13	183 3 12	20,592	1,979	10 6½
Flock stud ewe weaners	26 0 16	29 2 23	27 0 24	295 1 3	33,071	3,706	8 14½
Old stud crawlers	3 3 27	1 2 12	3 1 0	45 2 27	5,123	617	8 5
Extra stud ewes	13 1 23	12 3 13	14 1 13	130 0 5	14,565	1,095	13 4½
Single stud ewes	35 0 4	38 2 16	23 3 22	486 2 21	54,500	5,642	9 10½
Flock ewes	41 1 20	33 1 26	30 0 26	525 3 13	58,897	6,206	9 7½
Flock ewe weaners	16 2 4	20 3 4	20 3 3	237 3 24	26,652	2,850	9 5½
Culls and killing sheep	10 3 19	14 1 27	11 1 6	167 1 17	18,749	2,582	7 4½
Rams	3 3 6	5 2 16	3 3 18	61 0 5	6,837	373	18 5 5/11
Totals	209 1 15	207 3 11	178 1 15	2,671 3 25	299,261	30,313	9 14
Per cent each	.0783	.0777	.0667	.....	.....	.....	.....

It is a matter which will admit of discussion, if this system of excessive skirting, sorting, and classifying is to the best interests of the woolgrower or yields him as large a gross return for his clip of wool as might be otherwise obtained. From the nature of the case it would be impossible to get a fair comparative test to determine the question, but many of the largest and most intelligent squatters are seriously discussing it and contemplating a return to the original practice of

skirting the fleece only by removing the stained and burry portions. Even the trade are beginning to recognize the fact that a good thing may be overdone. The following in illustration, which is copied from the books of one of the largest and best managed stations in Australia:

Summary of clip of wool, 1891.

Greasy, sent to London:	Bales.	Sent to be scoured:	Bales.
Super combing	98	Bellies	100
First combing	429	Second pieces	85
Second combing	208	Third pieces	49
First clothing	162	Muddy fleece	23
Second clothing	28	Locks	67
Broken fleece	154	Third lambs	52
First pieces	192	Second and third pieces	1
First lambs	66	Third lambs and third pieces	1
Second lambs	34		† 378
Summer lambs	2		
Double growth	8		
Black	1		
	* 1,382		
* 575,188 pounds		† 212,193 pounds.	

A total of 1,760 bales, weighing 787,381 pounds, which has been sorted into twenty lots. Twenty-seven per cent of the above clip was sent to be scoured, as being stained, muddy, burry, heavy, or odds and ends, which, if included, would increase the freight or affect the sale of the clip if sold as a whole. Forty-seven per cent contained in the fleece sorts and 31 per cent in seven other sorts, or 78½ per cent of the whole clip, was sent to England in the grease, and it is interesting to note the comments of the London broker to whom it was shipped. He says:

The fleeces have been admirably skirted, but we consider the brand very much and needlessly overclassed. In this matter it is absolutely necessary, in order to secure an effective and satisfactory realization in the London market, to have some reference to the requirements of those consumers whose competition is most essential to obtaining full current value, and in view of the importance of this point, we can not too strongly insist upon the unadvisability of making too fine and nice distinction between the different sections of the clip, which involves its subdivision into a great number of classes, and necessarily compels the broker to offer the produce in lots very often of such a small size as to render it not worth the while of any leading buyer even to value them. In saying this, we do not for one moment wish to depreciate a proper recognition of any broad or well-marked gradations, but only to limit their being too finely drawn, which in the instance in question we think has been in some measure the case.

The practice, in the extreme at least, appears to be losing ground, yet the owner of "Boonoke" says he "will continue it to hold the American buyer."

In the market of Melbourne it has been the rule of buyers for the American mills to refuse all wools which show a shrinkage of much, if any, over 52 per cent, and this action has no doubt had much to do with

continuing and even increasing the amount of skirting and sorting done.

When lower prices were obtained for wool the growers of Victoria were compelled to reduce the expenses of their stations. One of the most vexatious of these was the shepherding of their flocks in the open bush.

FENCED RUNS.

It has been found in inclosing freehold lands in the older-settled districts, and giving sheep perfect liberty in their paddocks, that they throve upon the poorest country; that any fenced country could carry more stock than by shepherding; that their wool and condition were always better, and the expense and trouble much less; while it was discovered that native dogs could be poisoned off until they were exterminated. The old system of yarding sheep at night, generally in unhealthy yards, was nothing but ruinous to weak animals. The question of cost was, however, decisive. Upon a fenced-in run, only "boundary riders" were necessary to care for the sheep throughout the year, other labor being employed as required. The actual outlay was never more than five years' wages. The first fences were made of logs and brush, and these cost from £5 ($25) to £12 ($60) per mile. But of late they are all made of wire, and are becoming lighter and cheaper as experience is gained. They are now made 3 feet high, of 5 or 6 light wires, costing £25 ($125) to £30 ($150) per mile. Stout posts are set 120 yards apart, upon which the wires are strained; between these 10 or 12 light stakes are set carrying the wires, and between these again several battens are placed to keep the wires in position. The wires pass through the timber, no staples being used. Some runs may have several hundreds of miles of fences, cutting them up into many paddocks, as the inclosures are called. The best fenced runs have cost from 7*s.* to 8*s.* ($2) per head for fencing, but the greater part of the runs for from 3*s.* (75 cents) to 4*s.* ($1) per head. Under the old system shepherding cost 3*s.* per head. This expense has been reduced one-half by fencing. (Dominion of Australia.)

STOCK INCREASE.

The natural herbage of the country, even before fencing, had begun to deteriorate both in quality and quantity, and under the closer cropping which resulted from inclosing this was hastened. No opportunity was given for reseeding; and the stock, year after year, having less of their best favorite food, steadily lost vigor and health. They required more salt or tonics than the native grasses afforded. These were supplied by the sowing of imported grasses.

This was first attempted in succession to the wheat crop which had failed from drought, and was so successful that, in addition to their utilization on the large runs, many small selectors are seeding down their selections of 320 to 640 acres and going into the business of wool-growing. This opens wide the doors for almost an entire change of the system. In the "back blocks," the interior, where a large acreage is required for the support of each sheep, owing to the small rainfall and consequent scarcity of feed, and where large capital is required to operate a run, the borders of many are being enlarged and the size of individual flocks increased. But in the older-settled portions of the country, particularly in Victoria, where the rainfall is from 15 to 23 inches per annum, and within easy reach of the railways, the number of flock-owners is increasing and the size of flocks is decreasing. This

will be readily seen from the following table taken from the census returns of the colony for the past 40 years:

Census returns of Victoria.

Census of—	Squatters and graziers.*	Sheep.	Average.
1861	1,064	5,780,896	5,433
1871	1,236	10,761,887	8,707
1881	2,466	10,360,285	4,201
1891	4,690	16,919,428	2,752

* The numbers of those who owned sheep only were not distinguished.

There is every indication that this will continue, and in fact is being striven for by colonial legislation. The leases of large blocks of land made years ago are falling in, and resumption by the government of these, for subdivision into blocks, of sections and half sections, and for their disposal to selectors at £1 ($5) per acre, payable in twenty annual installments of 1*s*. (25 cents) each is provided for and being availed of by a small, but steady influx of immigrants. This subdivision of flocks and increase of flock-owners will result in an addition to the number of sheep in the colony; better care and attention in the utilization of resources, increasing the carrying capacity of the land, result in more being realized per acre. But there will also be greater diversity of opinion in regard to breeding, as has been the result of small flocks in the United States, and while many will endeavor to grow a larger carcass, with the clip of wool as an incidental, others will strive to increase the weight of the fleece without reference to the size of the sheep. This change has already been sensibly felt in the colonial markets by the increased amounts of the two extremes, super combing and third clothing wools.

GOVERNMENT ENCOURAGEMENT.

The earliest efforts of the authorities were directed towards obtaining a supply of food for the colonies, but after the flocks had grown beyond this demand and began to have a value for the wool grown, executive orders and legislative enactments were made to foster the industry in every possible manner. In addition to sales at low prices, long leases at nominal rents, and grants of land upon most favorable terms, appropriations and loans of money from the public treasury were made for the carrying out and enforcement of regulations and laws, which were enacted for the destructions of vermin, extirpation of the scab, foot-rot, etc., and the improvement of transportation and shipping facilities.

EXTERMINATION OF THE SCAB.

The first enactments in regard to contagious diseases in sheep were by the Parliament of New South Wales, previous to the separation of

Victoria from the mother colony in 1851, but were not effective. About 1854, the Victorian Parliament provided for inspectors, who were to enforce certain regulations for the purification of the flocks, but the restrictions and surveillance were onerous, and after a few years' trial the act was repealed and act 143 was substituted. The enforcement of this was left to the squatters, singly or associated, and was practically a dead letter; the scab and catarrh spread in every direction and became so menacing to the industry that Parliament was again appealed to for relief, with "diseases of animals statute, 1864," as the result. This was very arbitrary in its provisions, but stern necessity commanded obedience. Owners were obliged to register a "brand" and mark their sheep with it in paint or pitch. Seven inspectors were appointed to enforce the law, which declared a flock diseased if one scabby sheep was found, and, upon the petition of four proprietors, infected sheep were to be destroyed by burial or burning. Penalties were provided for importing scabby sheep and the burden of prevention and cure was thrown upon the owner. The strict enforcement of this law would have almost destroyed the flocks of Australia, for by this time the colonies were united in their efforts preserve their flocks. In 1870 the scab act was enacted as an amendment, and, while giving the same powers to inspectors and increasing the force to one chief and fourteen subordinate officers, furnished a mode and the machinery for a cure. Under this act, on the 17th of November, 1870, the chief secretary issued the following:

AMENDED REGULATIONS.

Whereas, by section 36 of the scab act, 1870, it is enacted that every owner of infected sheep shall (under the penalty thereby provided) within fourteen days after he has become aware that such sheep are infected dip them in a suitable manner and with approved mendicaments as provided by section 78 of the said statute; and whereas by section 78 of the said statute it is enacted that the governor in council may make regulations for prescribing the mode of dipping and the mendicaments to be used for the same: Now, the governor, with the advice of the executive council, has made the regulations following:

1. *Mode of dipping.*—Two immersions (in the mendicaments specified by regulation 2) with not less than seven nor more than fourteen days between each immersion. Each immersion to be for not less than one minute and the neck and the head of the sheep to be saturated on each immersion.

2. *Mendicaments to be used for dipping.*—The mixture commonly known as "Tobacco and sulphur sheep dressing stuff," at a strength of not less than 1 pound of good manufactured tobacco and 1 pound of sulphur to 5 gallons of water, or the mixture commonly known as "Lime and sulphur sheep dressing stuff," at a strength of not less than 2 ounces of good roche lime and 4 ounces of sulphur to 1 gallon of water, the mixture in either case to be at a temperature of not less than 100° F. at the time of dipping.

J. McCULLOCH,
Chief Secretary.

No other medicament was recognized and the inspectors say "no other preparation was effectual or should be used."

The full severity of this act can be measured only by reading all of its seventy-nine sections, but the squatters had suffered so much from the disease that they aided in its rigid enforcement, and now point with pride to the fact that Australia is the only country which has effectually exterminated the scab, the last license for "scabby sheep" having been issued in October, 1874, and the governor proclaimed the colony "clean" June 6, 1876. The law is still in force, and the government maintains a force of six inspectors to guard against the introduction of diseases from abroad.

SHEEP IMPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

It was under the authority of this act that the importation of cattle and sheep from other countries than England was prohibited. The direct importation of sheep from the United States, which had grown to considerable proportions, was brought to a stop by the regulations adopted in 1880, which, after stating that cattle shall undergo a quarantine of sixty days and sheep of ninety days, provides, in the twenty-ninth section, "no sheep shall be removed from quarantine without the consent of the inspector and after complying with his requirements" (which are that they shall be dipped twice while in quarantine), and in—

SECTION 33. *Certificate of inspector.*—The exporter of cattle or sheep shall produce and deliver to the veterinary surgeon inspecting the same a certificate from the inspector or officer charged with the execution of the law relating to the prevention of diseases among cattle or sheep in the district in which such cattle or sheep were sold for exportation, or from which they started for the port of shipment, to the effect:

(1) That they have been in the country from which it is intended to introduce them for a period of sixty days and not less than fourteen days in Great Britain or Ireland.

(2) That they are free from infection.

(3) That they have not within sixty days last preceding been in contact with infection.

All sheep exported from the United States to Australia must come via England, remaining there fourteen days, get a clean bill of health, and upon landing here undergo quarantine and dipping as above.

THE RABBIT PEST.

The herbivorous kangaroo family, from the "old man," standing 7 feet in height, down to the "kangaroo rat," was found in all parts of Australia and in such numbers as to have an appreciable effect upon the pastures. But they were timid animals, seeking seclusion, and the squatter soon cleared them from his station. In 1862 a Mr. Austin, living near Geelong, imported several pairs of the common English

rabbit (*Lepus cuniculus*) to meet the Englishman's hunting propensity, as the kangaroo was fast disappearing. Mr. Austin was looked upon as a public-spirited citizen and benefactor for his effort, and he kindly complied with many requests for rabbits to stock other places and they were thus generally distributed. The English hare (*Lepus timidus*) and the European fox (*Vulpis vulgaris*) have been imported for similar reasons. These animals found in Australia a congenial home and multiplied beyond all English experience, the rabbits becoming in twelve years so numerous in the western district of Victoria as to threaten the destruction of the flocks, and concerted action for their extermination was resolved upon by several communities. Large drives were organized, by which 5,000 and even 10,000 of these rodents were killed in a single day.

But still the rabbits increased, and in 1880 the government, in answer to many appeals, passed "An act to provide for the suppression of rabbits," which directed the appointment of bailiffs to destroy rabbits on unoccupied crown lands and authorized the shire councils to expend shire funds in the work on occupied lands, to burn brush and log fences, tear down stone walls, and remove each and every object which afforded harbor to the pest. The killing of the native cat (the domestic cat run wild), the iguana, and the tiger cat was prohibited, as they were believed to be enemies of the rabbits and useful in the war which was to be waged for their extermination. If a selector or squatter failed to clear his land of rabbits, the shire was to enter upon such land and clear it, collecting the cost by distress, and £1,230 ($6,150) was appropriated to cover the expense on crown lands. In 1881 this was increased to £2,600 ($13,000), and in 1882 to £12,000 ($60,000).

But the rabbits continued to increase. Complaint was made that they found a harbor in the unoccupied territory of the northwest part of the colony known as the "Mallee," and the Government built a wire fence from a point on the Murray River, in a southwest direction, to a point on the South Australian line near Serviceton, 197 miles in length. This fence was made of woven wire with 1½ inch meshes, 3½ feet in width, with iron and wooden posts, and 6 inches of the wire was buried in the ground to prevent the rabbits from burrowing under it; to prevent dingoes from jumping over a line of barbed fencing wire was strained 6 inches above the netting. This was completed in 1888, and protected the occupied land from invasions from the northwest. But complaint was made that rabbits and dingoes continued to come in from over the South Australian border, and the Victorian Government in 1890 completed a similar fence due south from the point where the Victorian line leaves the Murray River, 150 miles in length, on the boundary. During the construction of this, it was found necessary to cart water 60 miles for the men engaged upon it, but the rabbits seemed

to suffer no inconvenience, having apparently accommodated themselves to their changed surroundings and learned to live in a country with but 3½ inches of rainfall, which was the amount recorded at that point it that year.

On the 31st day of August, 1887, the government of New South Wales issued the following proclamation:

It is hereby notified that the Government of New South Wales will pay the sum of £25,000 ($125,000) to any person or persons who will make known and demonstrate, at his or their own expense, any method or process not previously known in the colony for the effectual extermination of rabbits, subject to the following conditions:

1. That such method or process shall, after experiment for a period of twelve months, receive the approval of a board appointed for that purpose by the governor with the advice of the executive council.

2. That such method or process shall, in the opinion of the said board, not be injurious and shall not involve the use of any matter, animal, or thing which may be noxious to horses, cattle, sheep, camels, goats, swine, or dogs.

3. The board shall be bound not to disclose the particulars of any method or process unless such board shall decide to give such method or process a trial.

A royal commission was appointed, on the 16th day of April, 1888, by the governor of New South Wales, to fully inquire into and report upon the several methods or means proposed for the purpose of checking or suppressing the rabbit pest in these colonies.

This commission of twelve was composed of representatives from the several colonies, Western Australia alone not being represented, and made a most exhaustive series of experiments, endeavoring to find a parasitic disease which should result in the total destruction of the rabbits.

The schemes submitted other than for developing diseases, comprising commercial utilization, fencing, poisons, traps, electricity, etc., were over fourteen hundred in number, and the report in its comprehensiveness and particularity shows how serious the question had become. The final conclusions of the commission, dated 16th December, 1889, may be given in a few words, viz:

After prolonged and careful study of all the proposals which have been submitted, the commission finds that no scheme has been propounded for the destruction of rabbits which complies with the terms of the proclamation. * * * It now advises * * * the state should advance to lessees of crown lands the cost of netting fencing, such to be repaid by instalments spread over the life of the fence.

It was testified before this commission:

It has been ascertained by careful experiments that four and one-half rabbits will eat as much as a sheep.

A run which carried 20,000 sheep previously was reduced by the pest to less than 5,000.

A district which had furnished 5,000 bales of wool annually was reduced to 300 bales.

In some instances the reduction in the carrying capabilities of the runs has been very great, from 30,000 sheep to 10,000.

Adopting the suggestion of the commission, the Victorian Government appropriated £150,000 ($750,000) without interest, for wire netting on stations and selections, making the shires responsible for its distribution and for repayment to the treasury in ten annual installments. Great difficulty was experienced in securing concert of action among the shires; while some of the councils were energetic and determined to cope with the difficulty, others were slow and inefficient, hesitating to use the power which had been placed in their hands, and finally, the colonial authority has taken the administration of the act into its own hands.

The chief rabbit inspector of Victoria, Mr. C. J. Black, says:

Poison properly prepared and distributed is believed to destroy 75 per cent of the rabbits, and bisulphate of carbon placed in burrows, where the ground is compact so as to hold the fumes, will destroy every rabbit in the burrow. Sixty-five dead rabbits were found in one which had been so treated, although its depth (8 feet) and its ramifications were so great as to require the labor of two men for two days to dig it out. Sir Samuel Wilson, on his estate of Ericilldoun, spent £8,000 ($40,000) in six months to secure the destruction of 350,000 rabbits.

Mr. Black furnishes the following summary of the amounts which have been expended by the governments of South Australia, Victoria, and New South Wales, for the suppression of rabbits:

Expenditures in Victoria.

1880	£1,230	1887	£21,000
1881	2,600	1888	20,000
1882	12,000	1889	18,000
1883	9,000	1890	24,000
1884	10,000	1891	39,000
1885	22,000		
1886	24,000	Total	*202,830

* $1,014,150.

Expenditure in connection with the destruction of rabbits in Australia for the seven years ending December 31, 1890:

Victoria	£190,000
New South Wales	820,000
South Australia	250,000
Total	1,260,000
Amount (approximately) expended by landowners, and loss through the destruction of crops and grass, to January 1, 1891	2,700,000
Grand total	3,960,000

equal to near $20,000,000 in United States currency.

In addition to the above there has been paid as bounties, for the destruction of 8,224 dingoes (native dogs), £4,077 2*s.* 6*d.*; 3,546 foxes, £748 10*s.* 0*d.*

As an illustration of one of the commercial utilizations of the rabbit, the following table is given of the export of skins from official sources:

Export rabbit skins, Victoria, 1877–'86.

Year.	Number.	Value.
1877	700,565	£5,790
1878	711,844	6,206
1879	1,036,372	7,322
1880	3,309,408	21,674
1881	4,473,108	32,217
1882	4,929,432	37,528
1883	4,245,596	30,364
1884	4,963,371	37,243
1885	3,424,259	23,548
1886	910,609	6,800
Total	28,704,564	208,702

EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYÉS ACT.

The great distance of the inland squatter's station from centers of population where labor was to be had, the expense attendant upon preparation for shearing and other operations, the necessity for its performance at the proper season, required that the employer should be protected from the whims or arbitrary acts of the employé, and again, as the employé at the station was far removed from any other employment, and dependent upon the station for food and shelter, and making of a written contract between the parties, covering every point which experience taught could be a matter of controversy has become the universal practice.

The employers and employés act provides for a simple and speedy enforcement of such contracts, punishing the laborer upon conviction of violation, with "imprisonment not exceeding three months, or to have the whole or any part of his wages abated, or both." And the squatter with "summary distress" for arrears of wages and damages.

INCREASE OF SHEEP AND WOOL IN VICTORIA.

The above general description of the origin and growth of the wool industry of Australia, made as definite and complete as was possible with information obtainable, shows how the Government of England inaugurated it by grants of land for its pursuit and improvement and fostered it by levying a discriminating duty in favor of colonial wool; how it has been protected and preserved by legislation and grants of money by the colonial parliaments, and how the colonists have industriously studied and utilized the favoring conditions of soil and climate and exercised their best skill and judgment for its advancement.

With what degree of success may be measured by the following statistics of its growth to its present dimensions from the settlement of Victoria in 1835, specially prepared for this report by H. H. Hayter, C. M. G., statistician for the Victorian Government.

Statement showing the year's increase of sheep and wool in Victoria since 1836.

Year.	Sheep.	Exports of wool.	
		Pounds.	
1836	41, 332	.....	.....
1837	.....	175, 081	£11, 639
1838	310, 946	320, 383	21, 631
1839	.....	615, 603	45, 226
1840	782, 283	941, 815	67, 902
1841	.....	1, 714, 711	85, 735
1842	1, 404, 333	2, 828, 784	151, 446
1843	1, 602, 798	3, 826, 602	201, 383
1844	1, 860, 912	4, 326, 229	174, 044
1845	1, 792, 527	6, 841, 813	396, 537
1846	2, 996, 992	6, 406, 950	351, 441
1847	4, 164, 203	10, 210, 038	565, 805
1848	5, 130, 277	10, 524, 663	556, 521
1849	5, 318, 046	14, 567, 005	574, 594
1850	6, 032, 783	18, 091, 207	826, 190
1851	6, 589, 923	16, 345, 468	734, 618
1852	6, 551, 506	20, 047, 453	1, 062, 787
1853	5, 594, 220	20, 842, 591	1, 651, 871
1854	5, 332, 007	22, 998, 400	1, 618, 114
1855	4, 578, 872	22, 584, 234	1, 405, 659
1856	4, 641, 548	21, 968, 174	1, 506, 613
1857	4, 766, 022	17, 176, 922	1, 335, 642
1858	5, 578, 413	21, 515, 958	1, 678, 290
1859	5, 794, 127	21, 660, 295	1, 756, 950
1860 *	5, 780, 896	21, 273, 910	2, 025, 066
1861	6, 239, 258	23, 923, 195	2, 095, 264
1862	6, 764, 851	25, 245, 778	2, 350, 956
1863	7, 115, 943	25, 579, 886	2, 049, 491
1864	8, 406, 234	39, 871, 892	3, 250, 128
1865	8, 835, 380	44, 270, 666	3, 315, 109
1866	8, 833, 139	42, 391, 234	3, 196, 491
1867	9, 532, 811	51, 314, 116	3, 824, 956
1868	9, 756, 819	68, 010, 591	4, 567, 182
1869	9, 923, 663	54, 431, 367	3, 363, 075
1870 *	10, 761, 887	52, 123, 451	3, 205, 106
1871	10, 002, 381	76, 334, 480	4, 702, 164
1872	10, 575, 219	58, 648, 977	4, 651, 665
1873	11, 323, 080	74, 893, 882	5, 738, 688
1874	11, 221, 036	88, 662, 284	6, 373, 676
1875	11, 749, 532	85, 064, 952	6, 096, 958
1876	11, 278, 893	106, 265, 877	6, 413, 754
1877	10, 117, 867	98, 468, 208	5, 670, 871
1878	9, 379, 276	101, 809, 809	5, 810, 148
1879	8, 651, 775	95, 628, 281	5, 269, 634
1880 *	10, 360, 283	112, 486, 058	6, 417, 453
1881	10, 267, 265	103, 449, 080	5, 450, 029
1882	10, 174, 246	108, 028, 601	5, 902, 574
1883	10, 739, 021	109, 615, 884	6, 054, 563
1884	10, 637, 412	119, 542, 407	6, 342, 887
1885	10, 681, 887	106, 278, 038	5, 028, 011
1886	10, 700, 403	107, 984, 839	4, 999, 662
1887	10, 623, 985	115, 461, 606	5, 073, 491
1888	10, 818, 575	118, 453, 968	5, 170, 980
1889	10, 882, 261	135, 607, 370	5, 928, 930
1890	12, 736, 143	132, 149, 027	5, 933, 699
1891 *	12, 919, 428	161, 805, 907	7, 165, 092

* Census returns.

PROFITS OF WOOLGROWING IN VICTORIA.

It is generally recognized, however, that the time has gone by for any sort of management to be sufficient for woolgrowing. At the present market rates for wool, the fact is understood, that to derive any profit from woolgrowing, anything above actual expenses, the sheep must be of the best of the wool-bearing breeds, and the fleece must be long and clean stapled, fine and densely wooled; there must be careful study and most thorough management must be pursued. When these conditions have been observed and there has been an average amount of seasonable rain, the Victorian woolgrower believes that he can place

his wool on the wharves at an average cost of 6*d.* (12 cents) per pound. But, he says, that would leave him little for improvements or to carry him through a succession of bad seasons, and little inducement to continue his efforts. In support of this assertion he freely and generously describes the system which has been evolved from years of experiment and experience.

SHEEP SECTIONS AND STATIONS OF VICTORIA.

Victoria, with an area of 87,884 square miles, may be divided into four sections, viz, the eastern, the northern, the northwestern, and the western. The first comprises that portion of the colony lying east and south of Melbourne, of 25,000 square miles in extent, having an annual rainfall of 30 inches and upward, and was generally heavily timbered. Into this section large numbers of sheep were taken, but owing to soil and climate cattle have thriven better than sheep, which, especially Merino sheep, have here been subject to disease, and while large flocks are still to be found in Gippsland it is not considered good sheep country. The northwest section, of an area of 15,000 square miles, has an average rainfall of less than 10 inches, and has not been successfully occupied.

The 28,000 square miles of western country is of volcanic origin, as is shown by the numerous basaltic ridges which cross it and the great number of extinct volcanic craters found upon it. It was naturally open country, *i. e.*, large well grassed plains broken by park-like stretches of forests of honeysuckle trees (*Banksia*), large quantities of the she-oaks (*Casuarina*), and dwarfed eucalyptus. This was the first section fully occupied by the squatters, and has proven to be the best sheep country in the colonies, and most of the prize-taking flocks have been reared on volcanic country. The natural grasses grew "sweet and strong and it was the earliest grass country in the spring," pasturing off has only had the effect of thickening the grass, which grows very rapidly again when the rains come. G. W. Ruskin, in his History of Australia, says:

> One characteristic of these grasses deserves particular comment. They are not so succulent as tame grasses, but whether in consequence of their inherent qualities or of the climate or of both these causes, they support strength in a manner unknown elsewhere, and their fattening qualities are unsurpassed.

There are a great number of varieties, but the most abundant is the Kangaroo grass, which is a very good food and resists heat. Lucerne grows well but is most useful for cutting. If allowed to grow long and get dry, the stems are like so many wires and "drag" the wool, and if eaten down hard it is apt to be eaten out. The prairie grass grows splendidly, and like the Kangaroo grass is grown in the summer; but this also grows high and is most useful for cutting.

There are no poisonous weeds in the western district. The Bathurst burrs (Cockle burr in United States), trefoil burrs, and thistles are the

only troublesome weeds. They are not natives, but have been introduced from abroad and are widely distributed. The depreciation in the value of the wool caused by the trefoil burr is about 2*d.* per pound. Where it is very troublesome the loss is much greater, but is compensated for by its feeding properties. The little burrs, a quarter of an inch in diameter by an eighth of an inch in thickness, cover the ground in places, and in times of drought are greedily eaten by the sheep. All of the native grasses have great reproductive powers, and there is little necessity for reseeding. After a drought, when every vestige of them has disappeared from the surface, they quickly spring up after the first rain.

The sheep have to look after themselves all the year round. Hay is not cultivated to keep them in times of drought, but in very dry seasons a little hay is sometimes given to the young sheep, which suffer most, as they are teething about that time and can not cut the dry grass. Young crossbred sheep suffer more than Merinos, and are apt to be troubled by lung worms, fluke, etc., and hay is sometimes cultivated to help them at such times. The she-oak (*Casuarina*) has been almost entirely killed out in the western district from having been cut for feed during seasons of drought.

The natural permanent supply of water is very limited. From Melbourne to the Glenelg River, in the extreme west, a distance of 150 miles, only seven small streams would be crossed. But in these volcanic regions some natural springs are found. In the early days these springs were mere water holes, but the stocking of the country has had the effect of settling the soil, and the water instead of being absorbed has run off into the reservoirs supplying them, and as a consequence the amount obtained has much increased in volume. Marshes and fresh-water lakes are also used for watering purposes. The brackish lakes contain too much salt to be used. When there is no natural supply "underground tanks" are made. A swampy piece of ground, or a depression into which the rain water naturally runs, is chosen for this purpose. Tanks are made with a slope of about 1 to 5, so that the water may be easy of access, and about 12 feet deep. The making of a tank is generally done by the "carriers" with plow and scrapers, who thus find employment for their bullocks during the season of the year when there is no hauling to be done, and costs on an average about one shilling (25 cents) per cubic yard.

As the western district is all within a hundred miles of the sea the evaporation is small, and the allowance generally made is 1 cubic yard of excavation for each sheep, so that the paddock carrying 1,000 sheep would require a tank of 1,000 cubic yards at the least. To make themselves secure some people increase this estimate by 50 per cent.

This tank system has, however, many disadvantages. For instance, the tanks often fill very rapidly with silt, and again, sheep will not drink the clouded water around the edges of the tank, and go a good

depth into it to get clear water, thus wasting the water by carrying it away in their fleeces. The banks sometimes become soft, and constant care is required to prevent loss from "bogging" or miring down of the sheep. Wet fleeces also catch the dust and are made dingy, and thus injured.

It has lately been discovered that really good water can be obtained in many places at an average depth of from 50 to 60 feet. Wells are now being sunk from which the water is pumped by windmills into a reservoir, and is supplied out of the latter into troughs to the sheep. The advantages of this system are that there is no loss from evaporation and the sheep get a clear drink, and the cost of sinking a well and erecting a windmill is about the same as making a tank. The country contains a good deal of limestone and the water a large proportion of lime.

The Victorian stations are now all fenced, and most of them are cut up into paddocks. A large paddock would carry 2,000 sheep, but an average paddock would contain about 800 acres. On the plains smooth wire fences are used; barbed wire only when the paddock adjoins a road. In the volcanic country stone walls are used. The stones are simply taken from the surface and built up to an average height of 4 feet, and to prevent sheep climbing the walls a coping stone is put on, which projects about 6 inches. This stony country produces very good grass, and while the stony surface reduces the grass acreage, the latter gets a corresponding additional supply of water.

The amount of salt furnished sheep depends entirely upon the feed and water supply. Estimates are made of the numbers which find in the herbage—as salt bush, cotton bush, and various other allied plants, or in the water drunk from marshes or other natural lakes or pools—all the salt they require, and it is probable that three-fourths of the sheep in Australia are thus supplied. Where fresh water and fresh feed only are to be had, rock salt from Liverpool or a supply obtained from some of the salt lakes in the colony is kept in troughs in the paddocks, where the sheep can supply their wants as their needs demand.

Sheds are not put up as shelter, except for such as are kept for exhibition purposes; but blue-gum (Eucalyptus globulos) "plantations" are now being made, which serve as shelter for stock, supplying firewood and timber for fencing purposes, besides making the country picturesque. They also act as fire breaks when the dry grass in summer is ignited, as sometimes happens. These plantations cost very little. The ground is plowed to a depth of 3 inches in August (the last month of winter) and about 2 ounces of blue gum seed to the acre is sown on top. There is no harrowing, but it is fenced, to keep stock off, for about three years, when the fences may be removed. Plowing costs about £1 ($5) per acre, and the seed 2*s.* 6*d.* (60 cents) per ounce.

The number of men constantly employed upon a station and the buildings required depend largely upon its location (in plain or timber

country, distance, from a township or depot for supplies), its resources (water etc.), its size (acreage and number of sheep), and the improvements (fencing etc.).

Upon a station carrying 20,000 sheep the owner will act as manager. If he is absent or there are a number of owners, a manager is employed. The overseer is the foreman, who superintends the men. A bookkeeper, who is also keeper of stores and charged with their maintenance in full supply. Two boundary riders, who, from two to four times a week, visit every paddock and flock of sheep, reporting each night the condition of the fences, the amount of water, the state of the feed, bogging of sheep, incidents at lambing, incursions of vermin, estrays, and every other circumstance or condition which may come under their notice. (These boundary riders are often young men "learning the business of squatting" and sometimes pay for the privilege.) A man for house cook and a cook for the men's hut. A groom, who attends the stables and looks after the riding and driving horses. A cart driver, who hauls firewood, fence wire, posts, etc., as needed. A gardener and a general utility man. These ten men will constitute a full force, excepting at shearing time, when shearers and extra help will be employed.

A description of "Boomanoomana" will give a very good idea of an Australian squatter's home. The buildings are those usually found upon a station, and in this instance are substantially and neatly constructed, conveniently arranged, and sufficient in number. They are: The owner's house, with kitchen and other outbuildings; an overseer's cottage; office and barracks (quarters for bookkeeper and boundary riders); storehouse; stables; hay sheds; cart and buggy sheds; tool shed; blacksmith shop; carpenter shop; gardener's cottage, and men's huts. In addition to these, at some point convenient to the paddocks, there will be the shearing shed and shearers' huts.

The material for their construction is sometimes brought from Melbourne; if so, the house and some of the buildings will be of weatherboards, the storehouse, stables, etc., of corrugated galvanized iron. In many places where clay was to be found bricks have been burned for buildings, but in the western country very many of the stations have stone buildings; estimates of the cost of stone improvements vary from £3,500 to £4,000. The wages paid for labor has risen steadily in amount since 1843, when £10 ($50) per annum, with rations and a bark hut for shelter, was paid for a good shepherd. The discovery of gold and the consequent demand for labor more than doubled the wages demanded, and by 1871 the ruling rate was £30 ($150) per annum, with rations and shelter, which was still a bark hut. In Victoria none but white labor is employed, and the standard wage is now £1 ($5) per week, with rations, and shelter in what is still called the "hut," but is now built of wood, or stone, or corrugated iron.

The northern section of Victoria, lying between the dividing range

and the river Murray, which is the northern boundary of the colony, about 30,000 square miles in area, is a portion of Australia's great internal basin, and was covered with an open eucalyptus forest with some scrub, which appeared to monopolize the capacities of the kindly chocolate soil.

In 1841 the practice of deadening the timber by "ring-barking" was introduced from America, and the grass sprang up at once. This work was not very extensively prosecuted until about twenty-five years ago, but since then has gone on rapidly. The trees, if heavily cut into, which costs by contract from 2s. 6d. (60 cents) to 6s. ($1.50) per acre, according to the nature of the country, die within twelve months, and the twigs and smaller limbs soon fall off. These are gathered and burned for 2s. 6d. per acre.

The eucalyptus, when deadened, does not soon decay, but becomes very dry and hard, and much of that killed twenty-five years ago is still standing. Occasionally, in very dry seasons, when fire gets out some of them will burn even to the roots in the ground. Fire, indeed, in summer is a constant source of anxiety, and has at times occasioned great loss, not only from the destruction of all feed and fencing but from the actual burning of many sheep.

The scrub was broken down or grubbed and fired, the expense amounting to 10s. ($2.50) and even 15s. ($3.75) per acre, but the squatters were well repaid for the expense, since the ring-bark country produces a large amount of feed and does not show the effect of dry weather for two or three weeks after the plains are seriously affected. When droughts did come, the Myall, Boree, She-oak, Rosewood, and such other trees and scrub as the sheep would eat, were cut down for feed. In this manner all the scrub has disappeared, and the practice is growing of cutting in good seasons a supply of hay which, in this climate, if well stacked and thatched, will keep from five to six years. There is also a large amount of lucerne being sown, and the experiments so far show that it thrives and greatly increases the carrying capacity of a station furnishing a large amount of feed in the spring, and allowing the indigenous grasses to grow against a time of need in the summer. The ploughing, about 3 inches deep, with two or three furrow ploughs, is usually done by contract at 8s. ($2) per acre, as, also, the three harrowings at 1s. (25 cents) per acre. The seed is sown with Cahoon's broadcast sower and 2 or 3 pounds to the acre is necessary.

This northern country is crossed from south to north by a number of affluents of the Murray River, decreasing in number and volume to the westward, but none of them are to be depended upon for a supply of water in long periods of drought. Water was found from 60 to 100 feet below the surface, but very often too brackish for use, and there has been a very general resort to dams and tanks for a supply. The allowance, however, per sheep is more than in the western section, being from 3 to 5 cubic yards; probably owing to a smaller average rain-

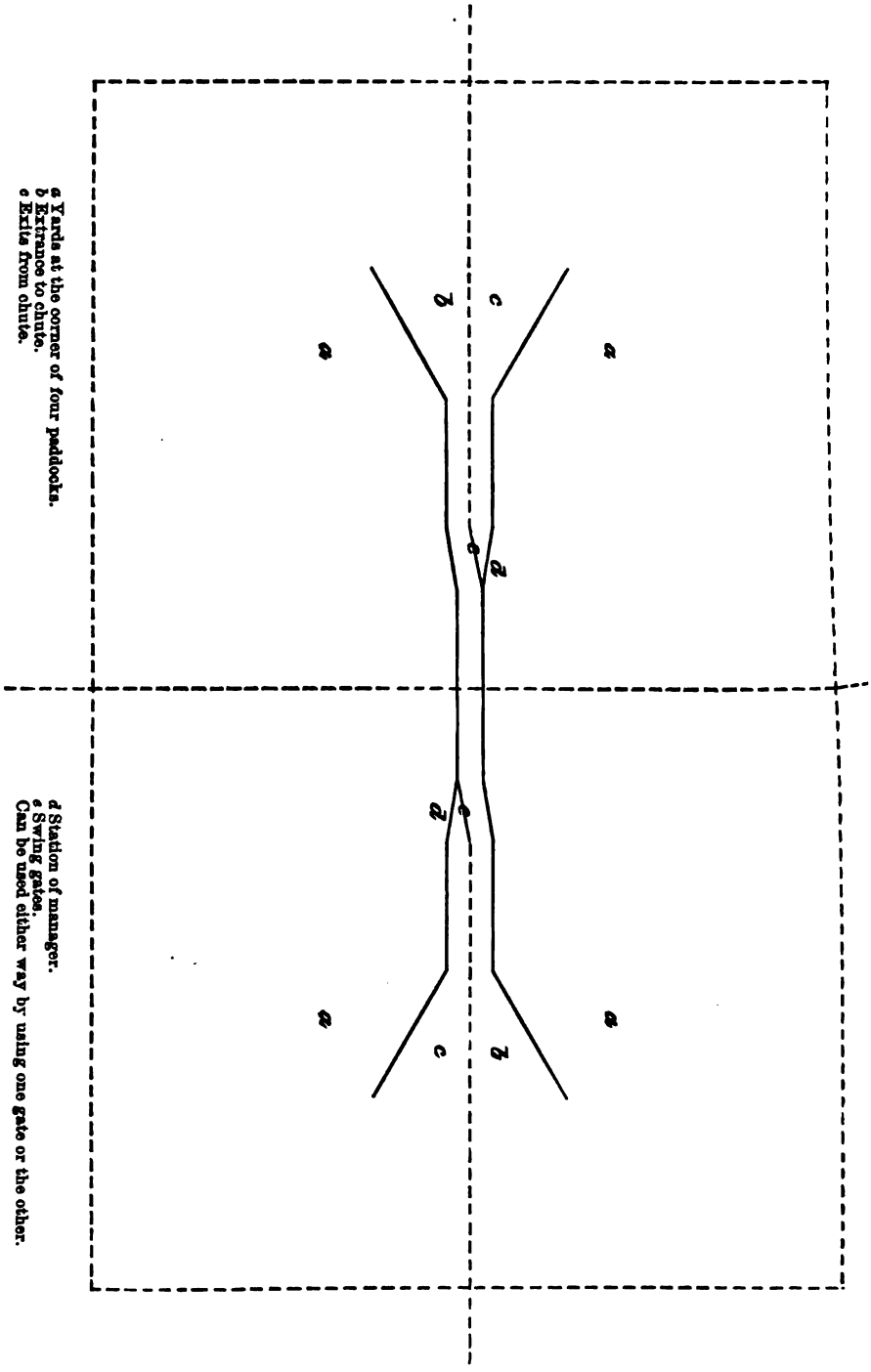
fall and a greater amount of evaporation. There are no artesian wells in Victoria. Owing to the greater amount of timber there were many more log fences built, but, as these are destroyed by fire or new fences are built, wire is now the only material used.

The buildings in the northern district are constructed generally of brick or wood, with galvanized-iron roofs, are of the same usual form, number, and arrangement; but the estimates of their cost differ much from that of those in the western district, and could probably be put up for £2,000 ($10,000).

All well-managed stations keep ewes, lambs, and wethers in separate flocks, and in some instances, where the run has been subdivided into a sufficient number of paddocks to permit, the two-tooth, four-tooth, six-tooth, and aged sheep are kept separately. This practice, which demonstrates the watchfulness and care now exercised in the industry, enables the manager to give to each flock a selection of food best adapted to its age and condition. And in large flocks there are always some, which, to the practiced eye of the shepherd, show a demand for extra care and feed to keep them up to the average condition. For the rapid performance of these separations and cullings, one or more drafting yards are constructed, of such form as to be connected by a passage so narrow as to permit only one sheep to pass at a time. A gate is hung in the center of this passage, which may be readily swung either to the right or the left. The sheep being driven through, the manager, with his hand upon the gate, shunts them to either one flock or the other as his judgment determines is necessary. In addition to the rapidity with which the work may be done, it prevents injury from chasing, handling, or fright from catching them to effect the separation, and is especially useful in taking the lambs fron their mother at weaning. Movable hurdles, by which the yards may be set up at any point, are used in the western country.

DRAFTING YARDS.

[Scale 12 feet to 1 inch.]

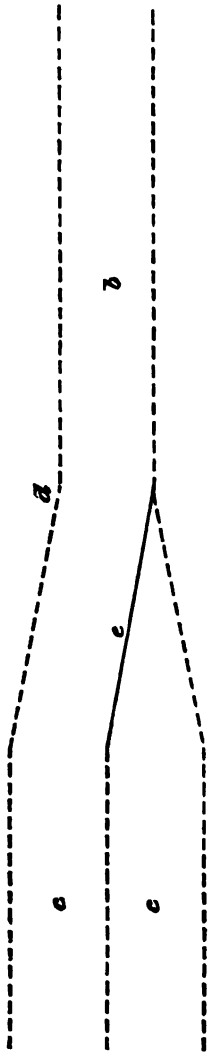


a Yards at the corner of four paddocks.
b Entrance to chute.
c Exits from chute.

d Station of manager.
e Swing gates.
Can be used either way by using one gate or the other.

DETAIL DRAWING OF SWING GATE.

[Scale 3 feet to 1 inch.]



LAMBS AND EWES IN VICTORIA.

Lambing generally takes place in the mild weather of April or May the season of fall being selected, as the rains of March following the dry summer usually bring on a crop of new grass, feed necessary to furnish a full supply of milk for the lambs. This was a time of anxiety and much labor in the old shepherding days when sheep were pastured in the open and dingoes were plentiful; but the only source of concern now is the weather. As many as 20 per cent of the lambs may be dropped in one night, and should it happen to be a stormy or frosty one the loss would be very great. A good many lambs are destroyed by eagle hawks and black crows, both of which are very plentiful; foxes too, are destructive and are increasing rapidly, especially in the western district. An average good lambing means the marking of about 75 per cent of the lambs which have been dropped. There has been a season however, when the rains did not come until the lambing was on, and the consequent lack of grass and cold wet weather reduced the number saved to about 30 per cent, but it was a phenomenal experience. The usual practice is to have the boundary riders look the lambing flock over very carefully every day, but experience has demonstrated that the ewes should be disturbed as little as possible, and the loss of ewes at this time is estimated at from 2 to 3 per cent. A few sheep die on the run every year. "Ewes are generally sold off at 5 years old. We do not breed from the ewe generally until she is rising 4-tooth. She is rising 6-tooth when she has her first lamb, and we take a lamb from her at 3 years old, 4 years old, and at 5 years old." After that she is sold to make room for the younger sheep coming on. If she is kept for another year it is because there has been a bad season, but that rarely happens. Out of the flock of 20,000 sheep there may perhaps be 500 to 750 short at shearing, or a total loss of 2½ to 3¾ per cent.

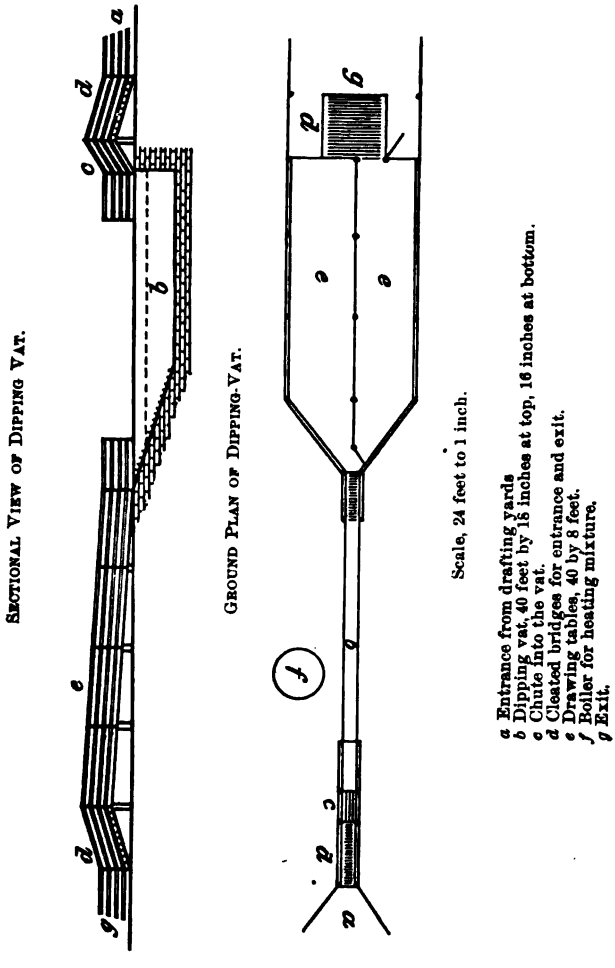
SCAB DIP.

The only disease that has ever caused serious trouble is the scab, but that was stamped out about 1874, and has been fully described.

The receipt, given and directed by the regulations to be used at quarantine, is acknowledged to be effective, but the woolgrower believes it is severe in its operation, making the skin dry and the wool harsh. The formula preferred, and believed by the squatter to be equally efficacious, for the eradication of scab and the destruction of ticks, and is preferable as leaving the skin nice and soft, and thus promoting the growth of wool, is as follows:

In the proportions of 1 pound of tobacco, 1 pound of flour of sulphur to 4 gallons of water. This is to be kept at a temperature of 104° Fahr., and if the sheep are dipped immediately after shearing, the discoloration of the wool will wear off, but if there is four months or more of growth of wool, the sheep should be brook-washed. *The most economical,* speedy, and effective arrangement for this purpose is an under-

ground tank, with suitable pens, drainage tables, etc., the ground plan and section of which is here shown:



SHEEP DISEASES.

During the days of shepherding, when the sheep were penned at night in dirty yards, foot-rot was never absent from the flock. It is now prevalent only in wet country or during seasons of unusual rainfall, and confined almost entirely to Merinos. It is cured by paring and dressing the feet, and driving the sheep through shallow troughs containing arsenic water and powdered blue stone in water. If this is done during the dry season the disease is easily controlled. It is not believed to be contagious. Lung worms, intestinal worms, fluke, and kindred diseases are only troublesome in the cold, wet mountain districts, and are combatted by giving drenches, plenty of salt, drainage, and removal of stock to healthier land, there being no actual cure known, but the loss from these diseases is comparatively small.

Generally speaking, we believe the sheep of Australia are healthier than those of any other part of the world; this is especially true of that portion having an average rainfall of from 15 to 25 inches, and a sandy soil.

WEIGHT OF FLEECES AND SCOURED WOOL.

Forty years ago the average weight of the fleece was about 2½ pounds of washed wool. At that time the improvement began and the weights have steadily increased. Victorian fleeces are probably heavier than those of any other colony, and the average weight for stock sheep would be from 6 to 7 pounds each, in the grease. Farther north, approaching the hotter climate of Queensland, the tendency is towards a more open fleece and a drying out of the yolk.

The lambs are shorn at five to six months old, and a good average is 2 pounds 8 ounces to 2 pounds 10 ounces. Some very high-class stud flocks have averaged 9 pounds of scoured wool. The tables heretofore given of Boonoke show an average of 9 pounds 14 ounces for 1888, which was increased the following year to 10 pounds 9¾ ounces. The stud Merino rams generally used cut from 14 to 26 pounds, but there are still many used cutting from 10 to 12 pounds. The opinion has grown of late that this is too light, but it is considered very objectionable in this climate to have the wool so heavy as to part down the back and "let in the sun." Some few "wrinkles" forward of the "dewlap" are permitted as showing a strong masculine character, but otherwise a plain sheep is preferred. In illustration of the character of sheep now being sought for, the report of the scouring of twenty-seven rams' fleeces from a celebrated stud flock, kindly furnished by Messrs. Goldsbrough, Mort & Co., wool brokers, Melbourne, Australia, under whose auspices the scouring was conducted, is given:

These twenty-seven rams' fleeces were selected during the shearing of an extra stud flock, and sent to us in their entirety, *i. e.*, unskirted by the grower. They are magnificent specimens of an excellent type of wool, very deep and sound, dense

staple of robust quality, but soft and lustrous, and all of even character. After remaining on exhibition for some time, they were carefully skirted by us and sent to be scoured, with the results shown in the following particulars:

Sorts.	Greasy weight sent to be scoured.*		Scoured wool returned.†	
	Weights.	Per cent of each.	Weights.	Per cent loss on each.
	Pounds.		*Pounds.*	
Fleece wool	275	44.21	147	46.55
Pieces	184	29.58	109	40.76
Bellies	115	18.49	69	40.00
Locks	48	7.72	26	45.84
Gross weight	622	100.00	351	.....
Tare	35	.....	35	.....
Net weight	587	.....	316	.....

* Average weight per fleece 21.75 pounds.
† Average weight per fleece 11.70 pounds.

The total loss in weight by scouring was 271 pounds or 46.17 per cent, while the remainder was 316 pounds of scoured wool, or 53.83 per cent, an average of 11 pounds 11.70 ounces per fleece. The wool is scoured as clean as is ordinarly done for milling purposes, and may still contain from 6 to 7 per cent of natural grease, but demonstrates what sheep in Australia are capable of producing; for this flock has been in the possession of its present owner for fourteen years, during which time there has been no introduction of foreign blood.

At five years old a sheep is "cast" for age, but it loses its density before then; "we reckon a sheep will cut its best fleece at 4-tooth, when about thirty months old. After that it gradually goes off and the fleece gets thinner and lighter. We always get the best wool and biggest fleece off our 4-tooth sheep." This decrease is in quantity only, not in quality. The breeders of Victoria think, with time and proper selection in breeding, the tendency of Merinos to a lighter and more open fleece in warm climates can be overcome, without the introduction of foreign blood; but this is a question with many, and the immense benefit and immediate effect of the American Merino rams which have lately been imported, particularly in the northern section, is given as illustration of the necessity for such importations. "They give a fleece at once," and one case is cited where the average weight of fleece was increased by 9 ounces in one year. The principal objection urged against the American Merino is that the staple is short, harsh, and hard and there are too many wrinkles.

The effect of the climate and feed upon imported sheep, is to do away with some of these objections. The lambs raised from imported rams and ewes grow a larger frame, become more active, lose a proportion of grease, and they grow a brighter wool.

There is a suggestion in these facts to some of the Australian wool-

growers of possibilities in the future, and they are disposed to learn to what extent they may be made certainties by experimenting with well-bred American Merinos, but they will be choice in their selection of animals, and it will be only after they are satisfied with the results that there will be any large demand for such sheep at remunerative prices.

SALE OF AMERICAN SHEEP IN MELBOURNE.

At the annual sales of stud sheep held on July 7 last, where a few American-bred Merinos were offered for sale by auction, but few were purchased. The editorial comment upon the sale was as follows:

> The apparent difficulty of sale which the American sheep met during the present week may perhaps be explained in that flock owners prefer to secure them privately and at the owner's reserve price, so that the introduction of the Vermont blood would not be heralded abroad through the publicity of an auction sale. That this strain has met with some measure of success is proved, by the frequency with which the improved cross figures in Australian prize lists and the satisfactory prices they fetch at stud sales. (Melbourne Argus, July 8, 1892.)

EFFECTS OF DROUGHT.

The value per head of stock sheep in Australia has fluctuated from £4 ($20) in 1835 to as low as 6*d.* (12 cents) during some period of drought. The anxiety of the squatter, when he had some thousands more of sheep than he had feed for, was to be well rid of them. During the past thirty-five years there have been seven years of severe drought. In 1864–'65 and 1866 little or no rain fell, and the suffering and loss were very great throughout all the colonies. The years 1868–'69 and 1886 will long be remembered by the woolgrowers of Australia as periods of severe drought, when tens of thousands of sheep perished for want of water and feed. It is at such times as these sheep lose their value. But the greatest loss suffered from drought is no doubt its effect upon the survivors. The wool ceases to grow and many lose a portion of their fleece, and from the reduced condition of the animal the wool becomes soft, *i. e.*, loses its strength and breaks easily, and there is loss of brilliancy. It requires from six months to a year of good feed to restore sheep to their normal condition.

SHEEP TO ACRE.

Many good judges express the opinion that the colonies of Victoria and New South Wales are now overstocked for even ordinary years. During the past year when the usual dry season of summer was prolonged from four to six months, thousands of sheep were sold at 18*d.* (36 cents) per head, and in some instances "culls and aged" at one shilling. The average price of sheep of all ages on the station is from 8*s.* ($2) to 10*s.* ($2.50) per head

The carrying capacity of Victorian stations, varies with the condi-

tions of soil and climate. In the earlier days of the industry, the allowance made was from 2½ to 3 acres per head, but, by the improvements which have been made in fencing, conservation of water, seeding to lucern, clearing of timber and scrub, and the division of lands, this has been increased, and the estimate of the average to-day is 1 acre per sheep in Victoria, 2 acres in New South Wales, and 3 or more acres in Queensland and South Australia.

EXPORTS OF FROZEN MUTTON.

The disposal of surplus sheep is again becoming an important subject and the annual increase is urging its immediate consideration. A few years since it demanded solution in New Zealand, and was solved by shipping frozen mutton to England, in cool storage chambers specially constructed for the purpose, on large ocean steamers. There were many difficulties to be overcome, but these have been surmounted, and so far as New Zealand is concerned the effort has been successful. The arrangements have been so perfected as to reduce the expense to a minimum.

The following is an extract from the Otago Times, published in Dunedin, New Zealand, June 10:

> The directors of the Canterbury Frozen Meat Company have reduced the charge for freezing mutton for this winter to ¼*d.* (¼ cent) per pound, less 20 per cent, the directors having determined to make this further reduction, which is equal to 3*d.* (6 cents) per 60-pound sheep, in order to induce stock owners to freeze and ship a larger proportion of their surplus stock, in preference to selling in the local markets. The Press points out that as the freight is 7*s.* 8*d.*, and the London charges only about ¼*d.* per pound, this reduction brings the total charges for freezing, freight, insurance, and selling in London, to about 1¼*d.* per pound, so that only 4*d.* in London will give a return of 2¼*d.* per pound, or 12*s.* 6*d.* ($3) per 60-pound sheep, in addition to the skin and fat.

The success which has attended the freezing and shipping of frozen mutton in New Zealand has induced the colony of Queensland to undertake it. Freezing works are in successful operation at Brisbane, and the organization of such companies at Sydney in New South Wales, at Adelaide in South Australia, and at Melbourne in Victoria is being agitated.

The consumption of mutton in the colonies is very great; it is as staple an article of diet as is pork in the United States, and may be measured by the statistics of the number of sheep and lambs slaughtered. The official returns for Victoria are as follows:

Sheep and lambs slaughtered.

Year.	Number.	Average.
1888-'89	2,366,525	2,322,116
1889-'90	2,383,946	
1890-'91	2,215,876	

Wethers are generally sold on the station "off the shears," at from 3 to 5 years of age, and average in price from 6*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.* per head. If fat they are sent at once to market, but if only in store condition are bought by feeders and sold by them as the market demands.

The price is regulated by a judgment of the amount of "dead meat" the sheep will dress; 60 pounds for wethers and 40 to 50 pounds for ewes are considered good weights. At other seasons the amount of wool on the animal would add more or less to the price per head. When sold fat, they are driven to the nearest railway station and trucked to their destination. Stock sheep are generally driven, especially in the back country, at about 6 miles per day over the wide roads, resting at night on the open sections of land reserved by the government for the purpose. In times of drought tens of thousands of sheep have been shipped from one end of the colony to another to find water and grass, special rates being made by the governmental railways to meet the necessity.

RAILWAY RATES.

The railway charges in Victoria, for 1892, are as below:

Fat sheep in trucks.—One to 101 miles, 9*d.* per mile per truck; over 101 to 150 miles, 3*d.* per mile over the 101 miles; over 150 miles, 7*d.* per mile for the whole journey.

These charges were increased 5 per cent April 1st. The trucks are small, double-decked cars, which will hold from 85 to 120 sheep. Stock sheep for two-thirds of the above rates. There is also a deduction of 10 per cent if the railway does not provide trucks when wanted.

LAND TAX.

There is no taxation of sheep in Victoria. The Government levies a discriminating land tax. Land is valued by assessors and put into four classes. First-class land is that which will carry two or more sheep to the acre. It is valued at £4 ($20) and has to pay a tax of 1*s.* per acre. Second-class land is that which will carry one and one-half sheep per acre. It is valued at £3, and pays 9*d.* Land carrying one sheep per acre is called third class, and pays 6*d.*; and fourth-class land, that is, any land which will not carry a sheep per acre, pays 3*d.* There is an exemption in all classes to the value of £2,560, equivalent to 640 acres of first-class land.

There is complaint, however, that the tax works unjustly. Certain rich country, which will fatten six sheep per acre, pays 1*s.* per acre or 2*d.* per head, while the poorest sections, which may require 4 acres per sheep, pays 3*d.* per acre, or 1*s.* per head.

The shire or county tax is assessed on the annual value of the property, including buildings and other improvements. There are various rates

in force in different shires, but a shilling rate is a good example. If a property is valued at £10,000, the 10,000 shillings would amount to £500. The owner would have to pay 5 per cent on that amount, or £25, equal to ¼ of 1 per cent on the valuation. The greater amount of the shire tax is expended on roads and bridges.

SHEEP-FARMING BY CORPORATIONS.

In the official records the names of corporations appear as the owners of many stations. These may be banks or other financing institutions, but are often associations of individuals which may own one or more such stations. In the former case the bank may hold but a small interest in the shape of a mortgage, which to be valid must be registered, and thus the property appears in the name of the mortgagee. No official figures of the number of stations owned by individuals can be obtained, but one-half of all is the estimate. The corporations and associations have in many cases been very successful, but in no instance unless they have been fortunate in securing a manager of ability and capacity. On the larger stations there are so many ways in which a little oversight or neglect may entail great loss that close, intelligent, personal supervision is required, and the manager's compensation, where he has no interest, is usually dependent upon results. If sheep pass into the possession of a man who has neither station nor selection upon which to keep them, he arranges to have them kept for an interest in the wool and increase; or, if he pays for their keep, the usual terms are 3*s*. (75 cents) per head, the wool to be delivered at the railway.

SHEEP-SHEARING.

The increase in the number of sheep in Australia brought with it a demand for a greater number of men capable of properly shearing them. As more attention was paid to the breeding of sheep and the preparation of their wool for market, more skill was required in the shearer and more care in handling the animals. In this way certain demands on the part of the squatters were crystalized into rules governing the work, and a class in the community made sheep-shearing their regular employment. The latter was possible, as the climatic differences in the sheep country were so great as to extend the time for shearing over at least eight months of the year. Beginning in Queensland in the north about the first of July, it is seldom completed in the far south before the first of March. Industrious men find employment during the whole time by traveling south as the season advances. They usually own two horses, upon one of which they ride, the other carrying their camp equipage, called their "swag," consisting of a dog tent, blankets, clothes, and a few utensils, such as a "billy-can" for boiling tea. The "swagsman," as he is called, who travels on foot, straps his blankets on his shoulders

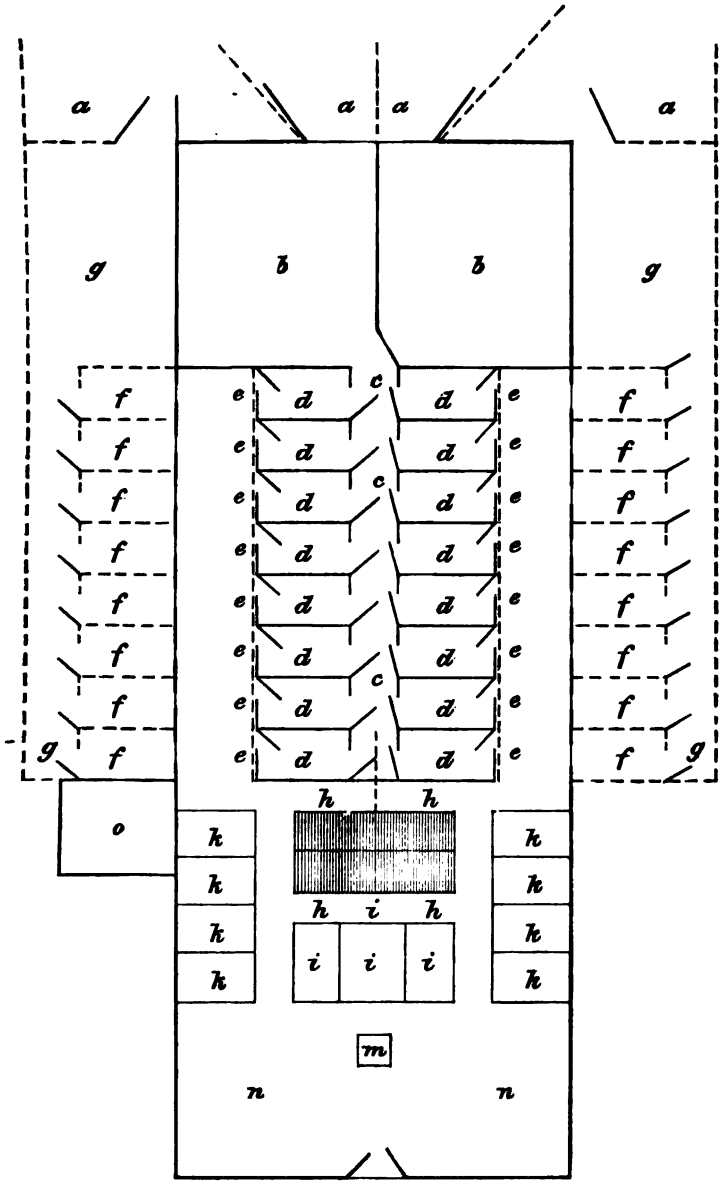
and carries in his hand the indispensable billy-can. When the shearing is finished in the south he migrates back, taking such odd jobs of work on the way as he may find, but timing his movements so as to arrive in the north when the shearing is to begin. Other extra hands are required at this time, called "roustabouts" (general utility men), and these, too, become swagsmen. Very frequently the same men will "cut out" a station year after year.

When these men are traveling, and stop at a station on their way, it is customary to give each a ration, consisting of flour, meat, sugar, and tea, and in some instances there is a travelers' hut in which they may sleep, but "the rule of the road" compels them to move on the next day if they do not find work. Instances are mentioned of fifty and even sixty rations having been dealt out daily at single stations, and the expenses of the station increased thereby from £250 to £350 annually. There has been a large increase in a class of travelers termed "sundowners," from their custom of timing their arrival so as to claim the ration, who do not want work, and to discourage them the practice of giving a free ration will probably be discontinued.

As the time for shearing approaches, the squatter or manager will engage the shearers, 1 for each 2,000 or 2,500 sheep upon the run, and as many roustabouts as he will need, to be on hand upon a certain day.

There will be 14 shearers, 2 packers, 4 sorters, 1 classer, 2 pickers-up, 1 sweeper, 3 or 4 general utility men, 2 cooks, and, when the shearing is done with machine shears, an engine-driver, a water-hauler, and cutter-grinder. This force would be required for a flock of from 30,000 to 40,000 sheep. Rations for these men for at least eight weeks must be provided, as well as extra shears or machines against accidents, tar for cut sheep, paint for marking, twine and bagging for the wool, wood for fuel, sulphur and lime or tobacco for dipping, and the shearing shed put into order and thorough repair.

The celerity with which the work will be done depends very much upon the facilities afforded in the shed, and as this is peculiarly an Australian development, and appears to meet every want, a minute description with diagram is given on p. 55. Some prefer the shearing floor all upon one side, with the sorting and packing rooms opening into it at the center; others prefer the shearing floor in the center of the building with skylights; but the principle is the same in all. A building for the above force would be 130 feet long, 50 feet wide, 7 feet high at the eaves, and 13 feet high in the center. The drafting yards are built on at one end of this, so that the sheep can be separated as desired.



a, drafting yards.
b, pens in shed, each 28 by 25 feet.
c, gangway to catch pens, 6 by 52 feet.
d, catch pens for each shears, 6½ by 12 feet.
e, space for shearers, each 6½ by 10 feet.
f, pens for shorn sheep, 6½ by 12 feet.
g, runway from pens to yards.
h, sorters at tables, each table 5 by 10 feet.
i, position of classer.
k, bins for bellies, pieces, broken fleece, etc., each 5 by 10 feet.
l, bins for fleece wool, each 6 by 10 feet.
m, hand-screw press, 2 feet 2 inches by 2 feet 2 inches.
n, storage for pressed wool.
o, engine shed, when machine shears are used.
— shafting for machine shears.

The pens a, b, and c are floored with slats, permitting all dirt to fall through, hat the sheep may be kept clean, and if there is a probability of rain these are

crowded full at night, so there may be dry sheep to begin on in the morning. The arrangement of the gangway permits of drafting sheep into any catch pen without interfering with others. Opposite each shearer is an opening for light which can be closed with a movable glazed sash, and beneath this a door through which the shorn sheep are sent into the pens f f. It is here the manager or foreman inspects the work done, the bookkeeper makes his tally by which the shearer is paid, and from here the sheep are driven to the dripping vat, heretofore described, which is built by the side of the drafting yards.

MACHINE SHEARING.

Shearing by machinery has been the cherished desire of the wool-grower of Australia, and inventive skill has been endeavoring to supply this want for many years. Under the system of hand shearing, the average of sheep shorn by skilled men has been about 80 head per day, which lengthened this busy season into weeks and even months on the larger stations. Careless men and struggling sheep necessitated an allowance of at least one per cent among the sheep for casualties, while many more were seriously injured, and the men also suffered from wounds and swollen wrists.

There have been sixty-nine applications for patents on sheep-shearing machines in the colonies; of these but three or four have been successfully used.

At the Royal Agricultural Show held at Melbourne, August 28, 1891, three machines competed for the prize offered: The Wolseley, the Burgon, and the Bariquand. In addition to these there is a fourth, called the Silver.

Mr. F. Y. Wolseley, a resident of New South Wales, after seventeen years of persistent effort, claimed to have achieved success, and in 1888 a company was organized for the manufacture and sale of the machines bearing his name. It was the first to be measurably successful, has since been greatly improved, and more than 50,000,000 of sheep have been shorn by the Wolseley machines. The claims made for the use of machine shears may be given in a few words, as follows:

A gain of from 8 to 16 ounces extra wool obtained from each Merino sheep the first year shorn by machine shears, and a further gain of 2 to 5 ounces the second shearing. The wool being cut evenly, close to the skin, the staple not injured by being double cut, increases its value by ½*d.* to 1*d.* per pound. The sheep are not cut or injured; thus the usual allowance of 1 per cent for deaths from cuts and stabs is saved. No skilled labor is required, as any man or boy, without any previous knowledge of shearing, becomes expert in the course of two or three days' practice. The work of the shearer is lighter; no swelled wrists; can shear double the number per day in the most perfect manner. The parts are accurately duplicated, so that repairs are easily effected, and the simplicity of construction such it can not get out of order without gross carelessness or intention.

They are sold at £10 ($50) each, and an estimate for the installation of ten machines, with extras required to run through a shearing of 40,000 sheep, is given at £126 17*s.* 6*d.* ($617.43). The power required is a 4 horse-power engine to drive ten, 6 horse-power for twenty, and

8 horse-power for thirty machines; the line shafting should make 400 revolutions to give the 2,000 revolutions required in the flexible shaft.

There is still much discussion among squatters as to the economy, utility, and success of machine shears and as to the claims of the patentees.

Mr. Harry Hammond, the manager of Hughenden Station, after using the machines in shearing 80,000 sheep, in a letter to the Pastoralists' Review, published at Melbourne, in 1891, places the total cost of installation of thirty machines, extras required, breakages, oil, insurance, fuel and water, wages for engine driver and expert, engine, material, etc., at £1,200 10*s*. ($6,000), and offsets this by acknowledging a saving of one-half pound of wool per head, and of the 1 per cent for casualties, which together were equal to the total cost. But he asserts there can be no increase in the wool in subsequent shearings; the sheep were cut more but not so deeply; they looked better, but there was as much, if not more, double cutting; there was no more speed made, that is, the average per man was not increased over hand shearing; that a very much greater number of ewes' teats were cut, thus destroying their usefulness; and in addition, only expert hand shearers became expert machine shearers.

At Collindina Station, in 1891, with full sets of machinery in the shed, the sheep were cut out by hand, the owner saying he saw no difference cost or speed in favor of the machines; while at Boomanoomana, the machines were again used, and the owner says he will never shear by hand if he can get men to run the machines.

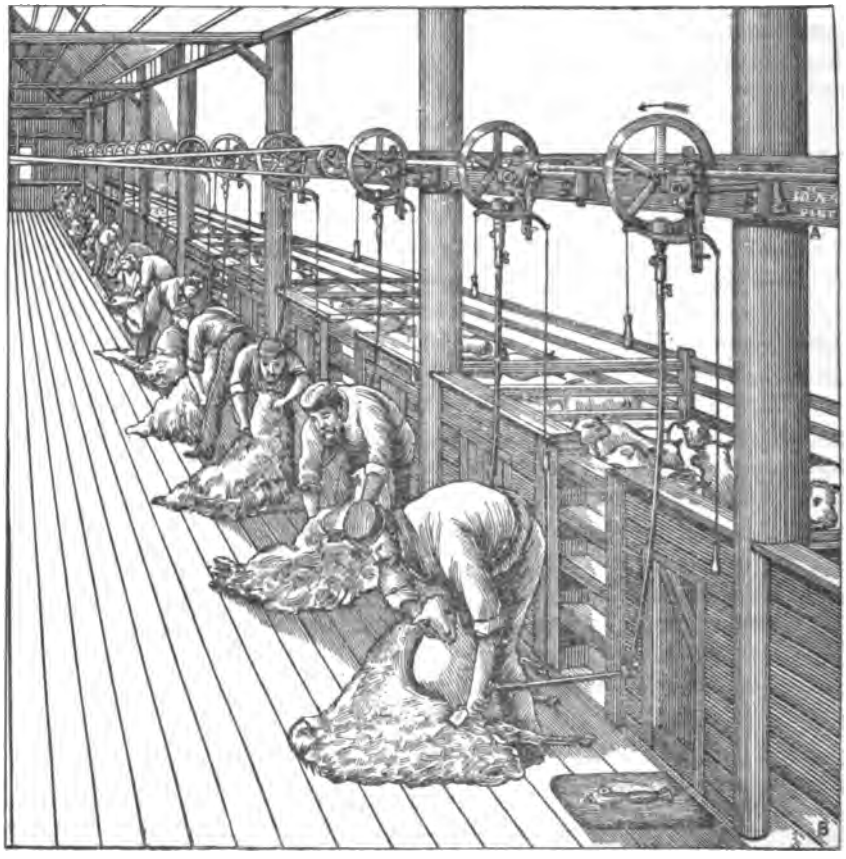
The general form and operation of the different machines are much alike, varying only in working parts.

An illustration is given of a shed in full swing with the machine shears. Mr. Wolseley has kindly furnished the following technical description of the mechanical construction of his machines:

A nickel-plated gun-metal casing, some 9 inches long, contains the few working parts. Through the hand part of the casing runs a steel spindle, on the fore part of which is a balance piece into which is screwed an eccentric pin carrying a friction roller. A fork or lever whose fulcrum lies above and a little behind the balance piece on the main spindle. The friction roller works inside the checks of the lever and thus as the main spindle rotates causes the lever to reciprocate. The end of the lever is forked and rests on the knife or cutter midway between the cutter end and friction roller. A spherical headed stud has its point resting in a cup countersunk in the lever; the head of the stud butts against a circular crown piece inside a mill-headed hollow nut, which, as it is screwed into the cup or covering of the casing in front, presses down the lever and thus at its forked end gives pressure to the cutter, which, reciprocating over the steel comb underneath it, cuts the wool as the comb is pushed into it. Motion is conveyed to the main spindle by means of a friction-geared bracket fixed 7 feet above the shearing floor; a bevel edge leather friction wheel rotates by contact with a bevel edge iron wheel revolving on main shafting. The spindle of the leather friction wheel as it revolves communicates rotary motion to a rope core inside a flexible tube which, being connected at its end to the spindle in the handle of the shearing machine through a universal joint, as the rope rotates so does it cause the spindle to rotate and it to give reciprocating motion to the lever and thus motion to the cutter. The machine is thrown in or out of gear by shifting

the leather friction wheel. By means of the flexible connection between the overhead gear and the hand machine the operator is enabled to twist or turn his hand about in all and every direction and so move easily the machine over the body of the sheep.

The flexible tube is made of hemp protected on the inside by a steel spiral spring to withstand the friction of the revolving core. In the Wolseley this core is made of catgut; in the Burgon it is a steel chain. By the improvement and introduction of a universal joint about 18



Shearing shed in full swing with machine shears.

inches from the hand, most of the flexible tube is done away with and a rigid brass tube substituted.

The testimony of the shearer as to results is generally in favor of the machines, although he complains of "vibration," and he says he must exert extra strength in moving and holding the sheep to the shears.

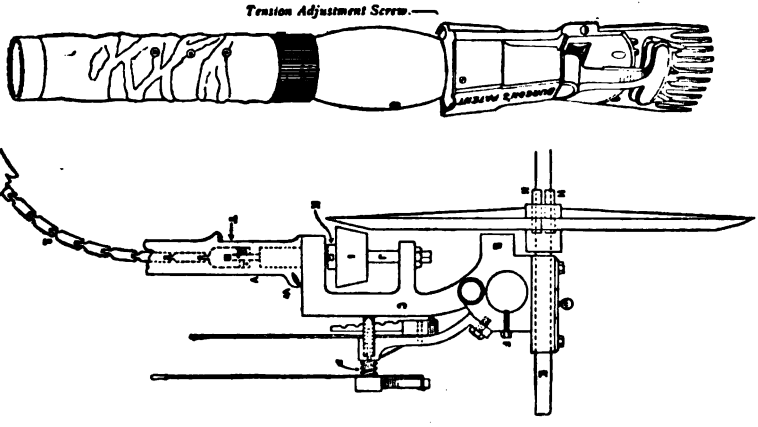
For a better understanding of the above description, outline drawings of some of the working parts is given.

A number of these machines will be shown at the World's Columbian Exhibition at Chicago in 1893.

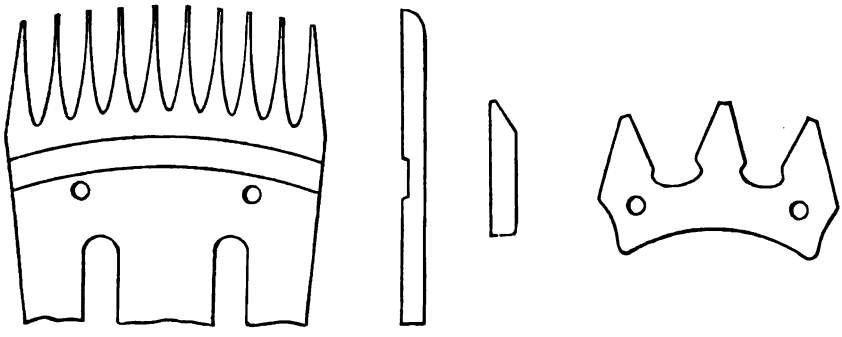
SORTERS AND CLASSES.

The pickers-up carry the belly wool direct to its bin (see diagram of shed, p. 76), and the fleece, as soon as shorn, to the sorters at the tables *h*. The best tables are frames strung with wires about 1¼ inches apart. Upon this the fleece is spread out, cut side down, and the double cut wool and loose locks fall through to the floor. The sorter "skirts" the fleece under the direction of the classer, "removing the rougher parts, so as to leave a fleece of equal quality throughout." The topknot, cheeks, and bottoms of the legs are "third pieces;" the bal-

BURGON'S PATENT SHEEP-SHEARING MACHINE.



Overhead friction gear, showing flexible shaft.



Wolseley comb. Wolseley cutter.

Front and side views, full size.

ance of the legs and edge of the sides are "second pieces;" the necks are first pieces; and a further trimming of the neck and sides makes "broken fleeces," the fleece so called is then folded lengthwise, rolled, and either tied with a small cotton twine or the end of the fleece is given a twist and tucked in. If tied it is wrapped with the roll and this serves to indicate the way in which it should be unrolled. The classer then receives it and passes it to the first, second, or third combing or clothing bin as the case may be. From these it is placed in the

press and comes out a square bale, 2 feet 6 inches by 2 feet 6 inches by 4 feet, weighing about 400 pounds.

BINDING, SACKING, AND MARKING.

The cost for twine is nominal, estimated at 1 pound of twine at 1*s.* 6*d.* per pound for 600 fleeces.

The sacks are Calcutta made, weigh 11½ pounds and cost from 2*s* (48 cents) to 2*s.* 6*d.* (60 cents) each. The corners are turned in at the bottom, so as to make them fit the square box of the press. The packers are paid 1*s.* 4*d.* (28 cents) for each bale pressed.

Small growers mark their wool in the same way as larger ones, with their initials and some distinctive mark, as a diamond, or the name of the station. A small farmer sending in a sack of wool containing perhaps a half dozen pets fleeces, would put his brand on; such sacks of wool being termed "fadges."

HOW SHEARERS ARE EMPLOYED.

The wool-sorters have an association in Melbourne where they find employment during the off season at the wool stores and fellmongeries. They are paid at the station, 20*s.* per 1,000 old sheep and 10*s.* per 1,000 lambs, for sorting and classifying.

The contract and rules under which the shearers shall work have often been the cause of strikes and subjects of controversy between the squatters and shearers. These contending interests are now organized in separate unions, representatives from which have formulated the following agreement under which the shearing is done in Victoria.

FORM B.—WHERE RATIONS ARE FOUND.

Shearing agreement for Victoria.

On the basis of a conference held in Sydney, on the 7th and 8th of August, 1891, between the representatives of the Pastoralists' Federal Council of Australia and representatives of the Amalgamated Shearers' Union of Australia, at which the following was agreed to:

"That employers shall be free to employ and shearers shall be free to accept employment whether belonging to shearers' or other unions or not, without favor, molestation, or intimidation on either side."*

Agreement, made this —— day of ——— 189—, between ———, hereinafter called the employer, of the one part, and the undersigned shearer of the other part. The terms of this agreement are, that the undersigned shearer hereby agrees to shear, with all reasonable dispatch, all the sheep required of him by the employer or his agent during the present season in a good and workmanlike manner and to the satisfaction of the employer or his agent, the total number of sheep required to be shorn by the whole of the shearers employed during the shearing to be not less than —— thousand nor more than —— thousand.

1. The price of shearing wethers, ewes, and lambs (including ram lambs under six months' old) to be at the rate of 15 shillings per hundred for all such sheep shorn; rams at the rate of 30 shillings per hundred for all rams shorn; money to be paid by check on a local bank, or exchange to be added.

* This is the definition of "freedom of contract" by the Pastoralists' Federal Council of Australia.

2. The shearer shall be at the —— station or run, ready to commence shearing, on the —— day of ——, 189—, and the employer agrees to be ready to commence shearing on that date, and to keep the shearer fully supplied with sheep, unless prevented by weather or by some unforeseen cause.

3. The employer shall, during the whole of the time the shearer is engaged shearing, provide him with the usual rations, hut accommodation, cook, cooking, and table utensils, wood, and water, free of charge.

4. The shearer shall not absent himself from work, but in case he leave before the completion of shearing, owing to sickness, accident, or other such unavoidable cause, or by the permission of the employer or his agent, or if he be discharged, as he may be, for breach of this agreement or of the rules indorsed hereon, he shall be paid for the number of sheep shorn by him up to the time of such discharge.

5. Once a week, on a day to be named at commencement of shearing, on demand, the employer shall pay to the shearer any sum, not exceeding 50 per centum of the amount due over and above one week's earnings at the time of such demand, except in case of the shearer breaking this agreement.

6. The employer and the shearer shall conform to the rules indorsed hereon, which rules it is hereby agreed shall be taken and deemed to be and form part of this agreement.

As witness the hands of the parties the day and year first before written.

Signed by the employer in the presence of—

Signed by the shearer in the presence of—

Rules embodied as part of agreement.

1. The shearing shall be carried on under the direction and supervision of the employer or the person placed by him in charge of the shed.

2. Before commencing work the shearer shall draw lots for his pen, and shall abide by the result of such drawing, the person in charge of the shed having the right to make any alteration deemed advisable.

3. All sheep must be taken carefully from the pen to the shearing board, and to be shorn closely and in a fair and workmanlike manner and to the satisfaction of the person in charge of the shed, the belly wool to be taken off first, where practicable, and laid aside.

4. In opening the fleece at the neck and belly both blades of the shears or the machine to be kept under the wool and close to the skin, so as to avoid twice cutting, and the shearer shall not be allowed to run the shears or the machine through the fleece so as to break it down the center or the back and shall not stand on the fleece.

5. In case the shearer turns out a sheep badly cut or insufficiently tarred, he shall at once sew and tar such cuts or wounds in his pen, or otherwise dress or treat such sheep as directed by the person in charge of the shed, but no shearer shall be required to tar his sheep in other cases.

6. The shearer shall not be allowed to kick or otherwise injure or ill use any sheep, and in case he seriously injure or ill use any sheep or cut the teat of any ewe or pizzle of any wether or ram, he shall immediately report the same to person in charge of the shed; and he shall pay to the employer —— shillings for the sheep so injured.

7. The shearer shall not be allowed to catch any sheep from his pen while it is being filled, but shall during such filling shear from any pen or pens that may be allotted to him by the person in charge of the shed. No sheep to be caught after the signal has been given to cease work by the person in charge of the shed.

8. The prices to be charged by the employer for the rations and shearers' requisites shall not exceed cost price, with 10 per cent and cost of carriage added.

9. Each shearer may have free run for one horse, but the employer accepts no responsibility for shearers' horses.

10. No shearer shall bring or cause to be brought any intoxicating liquor on to the station; no profane or obscene language or singing shall be allowed in the shed.

11. The employer shall provide at least one grindstone for every ten shearers employed.

12. In all sheds where shearing machines are used, the shearer shall be provided with one comb and four cutters free of cost to every 1,500 sheep shorn by him, all combs and cutters used by the shearer above that number to be paid for by him at cost price. In case of stoppages through breakage or otherwise, shearers shall go on shearing with the hand shears.

13. No shearer shall be compelled to shear wet or cancered sheep.

14. No shearer shall be compelled to work more than forty-eight hours in one week.

As the shearing progresses and the bales of wool accumulate, the carrier, who has been previously engaged, comes to the shed with his wagon and oxen. The body of this wagon is a platform 7 feet in width by 13 feet in length, mounted upon a substantial frame, supported by heavy wheels with 5 to 6 inch tires. Upon this from 16,000 to 20,000 pounds of wool will be securely placed and carted to the nearest railway station by the eight or ten yoke of oxen attached. The accompanying photograph of 17,319 pounds of wool is a very good illustration of the work. The driver usually rides a horse as he drives, and is provided with a "swag" and a "billy," so as to camp wherever night overtakes him.

CARRIERS' RATES.

The carriers of Australia are organized in a union, and in conference with the pastoralists have established a set of rules which govern contracts made for hauling. The usual charge is 1 shilling (25 cents) per ton per mile, but is varied occasionally when the transport requires more than the usual amount of labor.

The cost of carriage by rail has been carefully considered by the government of Victoria, which owns and operates the railways of the colony, and with a view of aiding the wool industry of the "back blocks," and to induce the shipment of wool from the country beyond the Murray River to Melbourne, special rates are made for long distances.

The published rates are as follows:

Wool by rail.

[Rates per bale, not over 4 cwt. (448 pounds).]

	s.	d.
20 miles and under	1	0
26 miles and under	1	3
35 miles and under	1	8
45 miles and under	2	0
Over 45 and up to 60 miles *	0	4
Over 60 and up to 100 miles	0	3
Over 100 and up to 160 miles	0	2
Over 160 miles	0	1

* Per bale for every 5 miles or part of 5 miles cumulative in each instance on preceding rate.

From.	Not over 300 pounds.	Not over 448 pounds.
	s. d.	s. d.
From Echuca, for wool brought by river to railways	4 0	4 6
From Wodonga, etc., for wool from certain stations in New South Wales	5 0	5 6
From Swan Hill, for wool from certain stations in New South Wales	6 6	7 0
From Echuca, etc., from certain more distant stations	4 0	4 6
From Swan Hill, from certain more distant stations	5 6	6 0

These rates are equivalent to from 6 cents to 3½ cents per ton per mile.

COLONIAL WOOL SALES.

The importance of the colonial wool markets is shown by the attendance of buyers from all of the woolen manufacturing countries of the world and every season the number increases. The local sales have grown from 30,000 bales, in 1856, to 697,705 during the season 1891–'92.

The following table shows the sales in the colonies for the past seven years, ending February 29, 1892.

Colony.	1885–'86.	1886–'87.	1887–'88.	1888–'89.	1889–'90.	1890–'91.	1891–'92.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Victoria	176,906	179,277	189,657	224,579	282,066	247,900	292,870
New South Wales	106,243	119,000	145,291	199,481	238,048	230,103	283,132
South Australia	32,500	38,814	35,750	43,041	48,168	43,799	58,011
Total Australian	315,649	337,091	370,698	467,101	568,282	521,802	634,013
New Zealand	.....	.....	.....	.....	62,973	57,354	60,192
Tasmania	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,490	3,500	3,500
Total Australasia	.....	.....	.....	.....	634,745	582,646	697,705

The table below particularizes sales made by the Victorian brokers at Melbourne and Geelong for the past six years ending February 29, 1892.

Melbourne and Geelong sales.

Brokers.	1886–'87.	1887–'88.	1888–'89.	1889–'90.	1890–'91.	1891–'92.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Goldsborough, Mort & Co	60,033	62,540	67,105	76,195	66,503	76,254
New Zealand Loan and Mercantile Agency Co., limited	44,282	45,647	48,982	71,088	59,379	70,612
Australasian Mortgage and Agency Co., limited	28,845	28,708	28,539	36,567	30,252	32,992
Dalgetty & Co., limited	.....	16,256	25,154	31,739	25,899	34,374
Union Mortgage and Agency Co., limited	.....	7,961	10,473	12,885	11,893	16,407
Younghusband & Co	.....	.....	.....	4,724	5,539	9,169
Dennys, Lascelles, Austin & Co	21,491	19,877	27,513	33,082	32,914	36,453
Other brokers	24,626	8,668	16,763	15,786	.....	.....
George Hague & Co	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,472	11,538
Strachan, Bostock & Co	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,049	5,071
Sundries	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	.....
Total	179,277	189,657	224,579	282,066	247,900	292,870

It is now a well-recognized fact that with increased steam facilities to all parts of the world, woolgrowers, by selling locally, obtain a price quite relatively equal, if not better, to the return they might expect if they took the risk of selling in London, whilst by selling locally they have the advantage of ascertaining exactly what their clip for the year has produced, and, understanding the conditions, can make intelligent comparisons between clips which have realized different amounts, and govern themselves accordingly.

This enormous business has apparently grown from the necessities of the early squatting days, when the squatter having drawn his supplies from various parties consigned his wool to Mr. Richard Goldsborough, who, until 1852 was the only wool broker in Melbourne, when the clip was sold very often on the bullock wagon to that one of the squatter's creditors who would pay the highest price. There were combinations and "free lances" among the buyers in those days, but the business has been so systematized that the enormous quantities which now come into the city during the season, from October 1 to April 1, are either sold or shipped as the squatter may direct, with little delay and at a minimum of expense.

This is accomplished by the use of every device and convenience which experience has suggested or skill could construct. That the wool may be handled with the utmost care, skill, and promptitude, no expense has been spared, and it is asserted that Melbourne has the most substantial, conveniently arranged, and suitable wool-warehouses in the world.

A description of the facilities afforded may be of service to the trade in the United States, for the perfection of arrangement is not only for the accommodation of the woolgrower who wants his particular clip stored and sold by itself, but for the buyer as well, who is here furnished ample opportunity to inspect the wool under the most favorable circumstances.

The present system is an evolution, from the platform of the bullock wagon, through the old-fashioned city storehouse, to the railway freight sheds, and from them into the present structures, with acres of floor space for storage and show rooms. The capacity of the wool stores of Melbourne is equal to about one-eighth of the product of all of Australasia, or from 180,000 to 190,010 bales, and each clip can be found without disturbing others. This is made possible by the uniform size and shape of bales, which is 2 feet 6 inches by 2 feet 6 inches by 4 feet.

WOOL STORES AND WAREHOUSES.

The following description of the warehouse of The New Zealand Loan and Mercantlie Agency Company, limited, one of the latest built, will show the character of the buildings and their suitability for the trade.

The site is at the junction of the main line of railway entering Melbourne from the western, northwestern, northern, and northeastern

districts. Thus placed, the company has been able to get its warehouse connected by sidings running the full length of the building upon either side, with the entire railway system from the country and to the wharves at the port, avoiding the expense of drayage. The building, substantially constructed of brick, with walls 23 inches in thickness, measures 540 feet in length by 144 feet in breadth, and has a total floor space of about 4½ acres. A section 190 feet in length, at one end, is devoted to the handling of hides, skins, and furs; the remainder of the structure, 348 feet in length, has three floors, and is cut up by division walls, 18 inches thick, into three bays, measuring, respectively, 120 feet, 108 feet, and 120 feet in length, and each extending the full width of the building, 144 feet. The supporting columns are of cast-iron, and the 24-feet span girders, of which over 1,100 tons are used, are of wrought iron. There is a receiving and shipping platform upon either side, and, as a still further convenience, through the center of the building a cross line of railway has been made, connected with the two sidings by turntables at either end. Four hydraulic capstans at convenient points, very rapid and simple in their working, furnish motive power for drawing the trucks in and about the warehouse. From each floor to the lower girder of the floor above the height is 11 feet 2 inches, with the exception of the topmost flat, where the height is 14 feet to the lowest girder of the roof.

There are in different parts of the building twelve direct-acting lifts (elevators), with 3-inch rams. The three dumping presses on the ground floor and the six baling presses placed on the upper floor are also worked by hydraulic power. There is a 2-inch main and 2-inch hose on each floor, and in every department a 3-inch water main running all around the building with fifteen hydrants, which can be connected with fire-cocks at will. The two lower floors are intended for storage only, and on these 45,000 bales may be stowed. The whole of the three bays on the topmost floor are utilized for show-room purposes and form a magnificent series of apartments, splendidly lighted by sash in the "saw-tooth" shaped roof and a row of large windows along the southern side. The southern light is considered the one thing necessary in every wool show-room, as, being away from the sun, all glare is avoided and the light therefore uniform and steady. Upon this show-room floor 1,500 sample bales may be displayed at one time, leaving abundance of room for necessary passageways between them. The bales having been properly distributed and placed on end are opened for inspection by ripping the flaps loose, thus exposing the wool along two edges or sides of the end. They are then catalogued, the catalogue giving the number of bales, the grade, and the station mark.

Nearly all wool sold in the colonial markets is disposed of to the highest bidder by auction, duly advertised, at the sales room of each company in their city offices; the buyers having previously inspected the wool at the wool stores catalogue in hand.

The squatter is given one month's storage free. After that a charge is made. The charges for receiving, selling, delivering, collecting, etc., without storage, average 3½ per cent on the gross sales.

If the squatter decides to sell his wool in London, the trucks are taken direct to the wharves, and the bales swung from them into the hold of the ship. The rate for wool to London, per sailing vessel thirty years ago, was 1½*d.* (3 cents) per pound, but has steadily declined, and during the past season ruled at ⅜*d* per pound, equal to 75 cents per 100 pounds. In the early part of the season last year the steamer rate was 1*d.* (2 cents) per pound, but later fell to ⅝*d.* (1¼ cents) per pound. Vessels prefer the wool should be "dumped"; *i. e.*, compressed by hydraulic power, until well-packed bales are reduced to two-thirds of the standard size. But there is a great deal of objection to dumped wool in the London market, as it is thereby matted and does not present so good an appearance when offered for sale, and the practice is not now so common as formerly.

AUSTRALASIAN SHEEP RETURNS.

In the following table are the sheep returns of each of the Australasian Colonies at the end of December in each of the last ten years:

Colony.	1891.	1889.	1888.	1887.	1886.
Victoria	12,736,143	10,882,231	10,818,575	10,623,985	10,700,403
New South Wales	55,986,431	50,106,768	46,503,469	46,965,152	39,169,304
Queensland	18,007,234	14,470,095	13,444,005	12,926,158	9,690,445
South Australia	7,004,642	6,386,617	7,150,000	7,254,000	6,696,406
West Australia	2,524,913	2,366,681	2,112,393	1,909,940	1,809,071
Total	96,259,363	84,212,392	80,028,442	79,679,235	68,065,629
Tasmania	1,619,256	1,551,429	1,430,065	1,547,242	1,609,046
New Zealand	17,865,423	15,503,262	15,423,328	15,042,198	15,155,626
Grand total	115,744,042	101,267,084	96,881,835	96,268,675	84,830,301

Colony.	1885.	1884.	1883.	1882.	1881.
Victoria	10,681,837	10,637,412	10,739,021	10,174,246	10,267,265
New South Wales	37,820,906	31,660,321	37,915,510	36,114,814	36,591,946
Queensland	8,944,322	9,308,911	11,507,475	12,043,893	8,292,883
South Australia	6,696,406	6,696,406	6,677,067	6,388,366	6,810,856
West Australia	1,702,719	1,547,061	1,315,155	1,259,797	1,267,912
Total	65,896,190	59,850,111	68,154,228	65,981,116	63,230,862
Tasmania	1,648,627	1,720,027	1,831,069	1,845,455	1,847,479
New Zealand	15,174,263	16,677,445	14,056,266	13,384,075	12,985,085
Grand total	82,719,080	78,247,583	84,041,563	81,210,646	78,063,426

NOTE.—The New Zealand figures are up to May 31 of each following year. No South Australian figures for 1885 and 1886 being available, those for 1884 are repeated. The Australian returns are for December in each year, with the exception of 1891, which are the census returns of the early part of the year.

Mr. Henry Heylyn Hayter, government statist for Victoria, publishes the following table of imports and exports of the several colonies, showing the net exports:

Wool imported and exported, 1891.

Colony.	Imports.	Exports.	Net exports.	
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	
Victoria	90, 776, 713	164, 805, 907	74, 029, 194	£3, 792, 938
New South Wales	12, 163, 554	340, 691, 382	328. 527, 828	10, 927, 487
Queensland	.....	80, 992, 900	80, 992, 900	3, 453, 548
South Australia	19, 990, 333	66, 977, 214	46, 986, 881	1, 538, 705
West Australia	.....	8, 783, 073	8, 783, 073	329, 365
Total	122, 930, 600	662, 250, 476	539, 319, 876	20, 042, 043
Tasmania	.....	9, 378, 173	9, 378, 173	423, 700
New Zealand	8, 861	106, 187, 114	106, 178, 253	4, 129, 447
Grand total	122, 939, 461	777, 815, 763	654, 876, 302	24, 595, 190

CONCLUDING REMARKS.

The questions of paramount interest are, how soon and to what extent can this enormous production in Australasia be increased? It is the universal testimony of practical men, who have a personal knowledge of the inland sections, that all of the best sheep country is now occupied, and that any further increase in the number of sheep carried by such land must be only such as the improvements in the way of clearing, provision of water, and the introduction of new grasses may permit; these, however, have added greatly to the capacity of such sections as have developed, and a conservative estimate is made that their general adoption, if energetically pushed, would increase the total product in a few years 50 per cent.

Improved breeding may add somewhat to the weight of each fleece, but as the above tables show an average product of 5.65 pounds per head, this increase will be slow and may be left out of the question.

The unoccupied territory is the great inland basin; the two-thirds of Australia which Mr. Coghlan has shown, receives less than 20 inches of rain, and averages less than 10 inches per annum. The northeastern portion of Australia is being tested for water by means of artesian wells, and with some degree of success.

The New South Wales Government is putting down a series of bores in a systematic manner on two lines; one, east and west, from the foothills of the dividing range to the south Australian border; the other cutting this at right angles, and extending from the Murray River in the south to the Queensland line in the north.

The southwest portion of Queensland contains many artesian wells, and good, wholesome water has been found over a large extent of country at various depths, the wells flowing from 100,000 to 1,500,000 gallons per day.

A successful well solves the question of drinking water for stock, but while the present low prices for wool continue, irrigation for pasturage

will not be attempted on account of the expense, nor will there be a very large amount of capital invested in the development of new country.

In Victoria no effort has been made to secure water by means of wells, but the practicability of carrying stock water from the Murray River into the "back blocks" of the "Mallee" by means of ditches is being discussed, and the Government has recently ordered the construction of four immense tanks in that section for the conserving of the rainfall against times of drought.

The people of Australia have great confidence in the capacities of their inland continent, and are studying and developing its resources with patience and perseverance, and their prosperity depends upon the success of the sheep and wool industries. Every energy will be bent to maintain their supremacy in the wool markets of the world, and notwithstanding the present low rates, Australia will continue for some time to produce a fine and uniform quality of wool in large quantity.

The above notes and statistics have been arranged and compiled from information furnished by Hon. Thomas Cummings, M. L. C., secretary of the Victorian Merino Sheep Breeders' Association; Messrs. Beggs Bros., of Eurambia; Mr. Alfred Hay, of Boomanoomana; Mr. Patrick McFarland, of Barooga; Mr. William Faulkner, of Boonoke; Mr. Harry Hay, of Collindina; the wool-brokers, and Mr. George A. Elliott, of Melbourne; Mr. Frank Gee Duff and Hon. Jas. B. Walker, of Tasmania; the various officials of the Government, and many others, who have generously given their time and labor in answer to inquiries.

GEORGE H. WALLACE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Melbourne, Victoria, August 5, 1892.

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2. NEW SOUTH WALES.

REPORT BY CONSUL CAMERON, OF SYDNEY.

In calling upon me to furnish replies to the questions which you forwarded in dispatch, No. 156, of last year, and to report on the wool trade of this colony and kindred subjects, you have placed before me anything but an invidious task, in view of the able and exhaustive reports on this subject already furnished by the late lamented Consul Griffin.

It has been impossible for me to obtain the statistical information requisite for this report any earlier, as they have only just been compiled by the Government departments concerned; in fact the statistician has only published six parts, as yet, of his register for 1891.

I thought it necessary to classify the queries submitted, and a list of

those treated therein will be found attached to each section of my report, together with copies of letters from the authorities upon whom I have relied for the authenticity of my statements. Many of the questions are somewhat analogous, have a tendency to dovetail into each other, and an inclination to collide like two ships in a dead calm, so that I may, perhaps, be considered somewhat digressive. The fact, however, is that the various subjects are comparatively inexhaustible, so much might be written about wool and its side issues; one Government official observing to me whilst I was compiling this report, "Well, how are you getting on with your history of our colony?"

I have endeavored to extract the pith of the mass of information so cheerfully placed at my disposal by all to whom I have appealed, and have concentrated it as far as possible, having been especially careful to advance nothing for which, if challenged, I have not adequate authority.

The first subject, and, it appears to me, one of the most important on the list, is that of—

I. CLIMATE.*

The territory of New South Wales is naturally divided into five parts: The coast division, the mountain division, the western division, the intermediate division, and salt bush.

The first, or coast division, embraces the eastern seaboard from Victoria on the south to Queensland on the north, comprising an area of 660 by 40 miles, throughout which the climate is mild and, comparatively speaking, damp. In general the country is level, diversified by occasional ranges of hills and spurs from the main coast chain to the sea. At river mouths, more especially on the neighboring flats, the soil is rich and fertile. Merino sheep do not thrive here, the soil being too deep, the grass too rank, and the climate too moist. The Romney Marsh, Cotswold, and other long-wooled, large-framed breeds, however, prosper well in some portions. Horses do well, if the soil and pasture are in any way favorable, and cattle thrive admirably. As a proof of the excellence of the pasture, it is to be noted that the principal dairies are to be found in the southern portion of this division.

The mountain division also extends from the Victorian border to Queensland, being about 600 miles long by an average breadth of 100

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*SYDNEY OBSERVATORY, *July 11, 1892.*

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of July 8, asking me to look over the accompanying MS. on the Climate of New South Wales, and I have very much pleasure in stating that I have complied with your request and find that the MS. is quite correct.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

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Government Astronomer for New South Wales.

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miles from its northern extremity to the head of the Hunter River thence to the upper waters of the Murrumbidge it recedes to 40 miles again opening out to 100 miles to the west and the northwest to the head of the Billybong Creek and southerly to the Murray. Its boundaries are Queensland on the north, the coast division on the east, Victoria on the south, and on the west the line may be defined as commencing at Jungellie, upper Murray, on the northeast to Gundagai, thence east to Gundaroo and north, by Gunning, Crookwell, and Binda, to Rockley; thence northwest to Hill End, east to Carpartee, and on north by Merriwa to the Liverpool ranges, thence east, by these ranges and Murrurundi to Nundle, then north by Bendemeer, Buudarra, Inverell, and Ashford to the Queensland border. Here the climate varies, the perpetual snow of the rugged Australian alps being replaced by a temperate and cold climate on the tablelands and in the hilly country. The soil is thin and unproductive, as may be expected in such rocky territory, but where the formation is volcanic or limestone, the pasture land, of which there is a fair proportion, is sound, deep, and rich. Some of the hardiest saddle and smaller draft horses are bred among these hilly lands and, in spite of cold and exposure, thrive well throughout the whole year and soon recover in spring from the poor condition to which they are reduced during the hard winter. Herefords and Black-polled breeds suit this district best, being thicker skinned and heavier coated than Shorthorns or Devons. Store cattle are bred here to a considerable extent, and it is only in the scrubby and mountainous portions that cattle do not thrive.

The division known as the western slope starts from the Queensland border on the north to that of Victoria on the south, and is about 550 miles long by 90 miles of average breadth. Its eastern boundary is formed by the west side of the mountainous division, and on the west, it is limited by a line commencing at Murolara on the Murray, and running north and northeast by Urana to a point between Wagga Wagga and Narandera on the Murrumbidgee to the Macquarie below Dubbo; thence north to the Castlereagh above Coonamble, and again northeast to the Namoi, with a northerly direction to the Gwydir on the Queensland border near Bogabilla. Natural grasses are plentiful throughout the whole of this district all the year round, the climate being mild and equable. The country is undulating, and large tracts of plains separate the hills which break the flats of fertile soil, which, though generally light, is in some parts rich and deep. In no part of this continent, perhaps in the world, can a better locality be found for breeding horses. With a temperate climate, as before remarked, a winter mild and of short duration, and abundant feed, stock suffers comparatively nothing from the cold. The district is of a sufficiently hilly character to give the horse sound wind and good action, whilst at the same time it tends to develop the animal's muscles, nor is good shelter wanting in the hollows and gullies. These remarks apply equally to cattle,

the more fertile parts being suited for Shorthorns and the lighter for the Hereford and Devon breeds.

The intermediate division is so called as being the country which separates the saline and nonsaline portions, besides which it is in a transition state, or in course of becoming a grass in lieu of a salt-bush territory. Its length from Queensland on the north to Victoria on the south is about 580 miles, with an average width of 120 miles, bounded on the east by the western slopes; its western boundary begins at the junction of the Murrumbidgee and the Murray, running due north some 30 miles and on in a northeast direction to Duck Creek, where it joins the Bogan; thence to the meeting of the Namoi and Narran rivers, and by the former and the Barwon to the border of Queensland. Compared with the western slopes, the climate is better and drier, disagreeable for man, but very healthy for stock of all kinds, and, seasons of great drought excepted, they thrive well all the year round. The country is flat and level, with a few eminences rising here and there out of the plains. The soil, whilst still retaining most of the characteristics of a salt-bush country, being saline and fattening, is yearly getting firmer and more grassy. Although there are considerable tracts of poor, scrubby land, useless it may be said for grazing purposes, a great portion of its area is light but fertile, and in several parts a deep rich soil is found. Sheep have generally displaced horse-breeding as being more suited to this district.

The salt bush division is a true saline country, and, in common with the other divisions, runs from the Queensland to the Victorian border. On the former frontier, however, it is of greater width than on the latter. Larger in area than the other divisions, its length is about 400 and breadth some 300 miles. Its eastern boundary is the intermediate division and South Australia limits it on the west. The finer descriptions of wool can not be produced here on account of the heat, although it does not impede the growth of stock. The country is of the most heterogeneous sort, the soil being generally of the kind usually found in salt-bush country, viz., light, friable, and sandy. Sheep and cattle raising has proved much more remunerative than horse-breeding in this district, although admirably adapted for the lighter description of horses. Cattle do better than any other description of stock in this district. About half a million head are on the ground; were it not that sheep pay better, there would be twice the number of cattle.

Before the year 1874 nearly all the weather stations were situated on the coast, and, as it is a well known fact that the quantity of rain diminishes rapidly with every increased distance from the sea, conclusions drawn from such data respecting rainfall, etc., would necessarily be erroneous. From 1874 to 1890, seventeen years, the mean rainfall was 24.71 inches. The years of drought were 1880 to 1885, when the average was only 18.97 inches. In 1888 the rainfall decreased from 34.99 inches in 1887 to 13.40 inches; but the springs,

creeks, rivers, lakes, etc., had been so replenished by the supply of the latter year that grass and water were plentiful during 1888, and no ill effects resulted from that year's drought, followed, as it was, by a plentiful rainfall in the ensuing year (1889), when it reached an average of 29.25 inches, rising in 1890 to 35.73 inches. The figures for 1891 are not yet available, but the rainfall has been plentiful. At Camden Park Station, 40 miles south of Sydney, near the Nepean River, the average rainfall from 1860 to 1886 was 32.04 inches. At Bukelong, 314 miles south of Sydney, it was 27.25 inches from 1857 to 1890. At Armidale, 335 miles north of Sydney, the average from 1871 to 1890 was 31.79 inches. At Deniliquin, 481 miles south of Sydney, on the Edward River, from 1859 to 1890, an average of 16.59 inches of rain fell during the thirty-two years. In Adelaide, South Australia, in latitude 34° 56′ and longitude 138° 35′, from 1840 to 1890, the rainfall ranged from as high as 30.63 inches in 1851 to 13.85 inches in 1869, averaging for the fifty-one years 21.02 inches. In Brisbane, Queensland, which city lies in latitude 27° 25′ and longitude 138° 35′, the average from 1858 to 1889 was 49.37 inches during the thirty-two years. At Hobart, in latitude 42° 53′, longitude 147° 20′, from 1841 to 1890, 23.54 inches was the average for fifty years; whilst in Melbourne, from 1855 to 1890, it was 26.02 for the thirty-six years. The year 1889, when a goodly rainfall and favorable seasons for all industries depending thereon prevailed, was followed by a still more liberal supply of this essential aid in the following year 1890–'91. Floods were so general and numerous that space will not allow of my referring to others than the great floods of 1890 at Bourke, 503 miles west, and at Walgett, 450 miles north of Sydney. On April 18 of that year, the embankment surrounding Bourke gaveway, and all the houses in the town, except the few possessing embankments of their own, were flooded, the water rising to a height of 42 feet 7¾ inches five days afterwards. At Walgett, where there was no embankment and the water had, consequently, unimpeded ingress to the houses, the Darling River rose gradually, from the end of January, until, on 27th March, it attained to 41 feet 10 inches.

It is worthy of note that the influence of trees on rainfull is apparently nil in this country. During an exceptionally wet year (1887) on Dinby Station, northeast of Baradine, 408 miles north of Sydney, situated in a densely timbered country, the mean rainfall was 32.66 inches against 38.92 inches in nine of the neighboring stations in the open. On the other hand, in the very dry year of 1888, Dinby figured for 11.73 inches with 15.52 inches at the above-named stations. Elevation, however, appears to have a beneficial effect on the rainfall, as the average of fourteen years at Wollongong, half a mile from the sea, at a height of 67 feet, is 38.84 inches and, at Cordeaux River, near the same place, 6 miles from the sea, it is 55.53 inches for seventeen years at an elevation of about 1,200 feet.

The wettest year, so far, of which any record exists, was 1890, when heaviest rains fell in the northern portion of the colony; in fact, ut double the average in the neighborhood of Narrabri, 321 miles th of Sydney. In the Bourke district, the extreme northwest of colony, it rose to 80 to 90 per cent above the average; to 29 per ; at Wentworth, on the Murray River, 731 miles south of Sydney; , in the Riverina districts, it ranged from 4 to 20 per cent, whilst he head of the Lachlan River, some 220 miles west of this city, it hed from 35 to 39 per cent. At Cobar, 494 miles to the west, it at-ed a maximum of 130 per cent, and the fall was very heavy all over districts between the Lachlan, Bogan, and Darling rivers. At ney itself, it rose to 65 per cent and, near the city, to 90 per cent ve the average; northwards from 40 to 100 per cent and in the hern districts of the coast 20 to 63 per cent were the figures reached. is interesting to note the result of the observations made on evap-ion at Lake George, 2,200 feet above the level of the sea on the mit of the main dividing range, near Goulburn and Braidwood, and arious other stations; the total for the year being as follows:

Stations.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
	Inches.	*Inches.*	*Inches.*	*Inches.*	*Inches.*
e	63.168	57.421	.....	.....	.....
ett	*58.406	54.194	65.252	58.952	46.416
g	50.684	29.033	43.797	43.344	35.570
.....	46.561	31.194	45.638	42.580	46.948
George	43.720	32.120	47.720	44.290	32.864
Tank	.....	.....	.....	.....	28.827
y	37.103	34.034	36.326	36.461	37.066
o	.....	†21.216	59.553	55.821	53.958
sdah	.....	.....	59.396	‡33.707	.....
n Tunnel	.....	.....	35.791	37.205	34.127

* Eleven months only, January to November.
† August to December.
‡ Eight months only, January to August.

he greatest evaporation during 1890 for one month at each place :

	Inches.
gett, 450 miles north of Sydney	8.146
ig, 250 miles south of Sydney (in December)	7.232
, 454 miles south of Sydney (in January)	8.100
George, 157 miles south of Sydney (in December)	7.590
Tank, 157 miles south of Sydney (in January)	5.594
ney (in January)	5.587
bo, 270 miles west of Sydney (in January)	9.768
an Tunnel, 22 miles west of Sydney (in January)	5.223

n order to test the evaporation from soil, both grass-covered and , the following method has been adopted by the gentleman whom ve to thank for much valuable information, Mr. H. C. Russell, B. A., M. G., F. R. S., the Government astronomer. Two dishes, each 8 es in depth and 2 feet of a side, thus exposing a surface of 4 feet are, are fitted into holes which leave the rims just above the level

of the surface. In one dish are lawn sods; in the other, garden soil to within 1 inch of the top, which, although sandy, hardens when dry. By weighing once a day, the following results have been arrived at:

Month.	Total grass.	Total earth.	Total water.	Mean daily evaporation.			Greatest in one day.			Days.	Mean temperature in shade.	Wind. Total—number of miles per month.	Rainfall.	
				Grass.	Earth.	Water.	Grass.	Earth.	Water.				Total for month.	Days.
	Inch.	*Inch.*	*Inch.*	*Inch.*	*Inch.*	*Inch.*	*Inch.*	*Inch.*	*Inch.*		*Deg.*	*Miles.*	*Inch.*	
January	4.282	2.775	5.587	0.138	0.090	0.186	0.235	0.192	0.232	31	71.6	7.860	6.020	15
February	2.519	2.002	2.003	0.168	0.133	0.134	0.235	0.282	0.188	15	71.2	6.733	15.976	20
March	2.674	2.042	1.759	0.149	0.113	0.097	0.282	0.201	0.358	18	69.5	7.058	17.128	25
April	2.796	2.417	2.123	0.093	0.081	0.071	0.190	0.190	0.144	30	63.7	6.391	2.462	15
May	1.337	0.903	0.976	0.061	0.041	0.044	0.099	0.097	0.083	22	59.0	5.450	8.455	19
June	1.077	0.834	0.917	0.054	0.042	0.046	0.154	0.118	0.114	20	57.2	6.915	10.777	19
July	1.086	0.719	0.886	0.060	0.040	0.049	0.236	0.096	0.121	18	51.1	7.483	9.012	17
August	1.747	1.398	1.598	0.065	0.052	0.059	0.145	0.191	0.112	27	54.2	7.094	1.236	6
September	3.022	2.399	2.425	0.101	0.080	0.081	0.189	0.165	0.155	30	59.6	6.637	2.169	9
October	5.030	3.384	4.176	0.162	0.109	0.135	0.282	0.188	0.226	31	65.4	8.505	1.596	9
November	4.191	2.817	3.663	0.182	0.104	0.136	0.329	0.235	0.273	23	66.4	7.892	4.024	12
December	6.145	3.786	4.914	0.198	0.122	0.159	0.329	0.236	0.323	31	68.2	7.231	2.563	18
Total	35.960	25.476	31.027	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	296	.....	85.249	81.418	184
Means and extremes	.....	.....	.....	0.119	0.084	0.100	0.329	0.282	0.358	....	63.1	.....	.....	...

NOTE.—The results here given are only for the days on which all the instruments registered. If from any cause the result from one evaporator was lost the others are omitted. Heavy rainfall in early part of year caused the instruments frequently to overflow.

In addition to my previous remarks descriptive of the soil characteristics, it should be borne in mind that every fleece of wool which is produced takes a percentage of potash and other fertile water out of the soil, and that hitherto nothing has been done to replace these elements. As a consequence, valuable herbage gradually gives out and is replaced by an inferior output. For instance, pine scrub has seized on thousands of acres in the interior of what was formerly magnificent pastoral land.

Table of some analyses by the analytical chemists of the Agricultural Department.

Locality and geological formation of surrounding country.	Nature of soil.	Mechanical analysis.					Analysis of fine soil.			Determination of substances soluble in hot hydrochloric acid of 1.10 specific gravity.										
		Stones of more than ¾ inch diameter.	Coarse sand of more than ⅛ inch diameter.	Root fibers.	Fine soil.	Moisture.	Sand.	Impalpable matter, chiefly clay.	Organic substances and water of combination.	Lime.	Equivalent to in an acre of soil 6 inches deep.	Phosphoric acid.	Equivalent to in an acre of soil 6 inches deep.	Nitrogen.	Equivalent to in an acre of soil 6 inches deep.	Potash.	Equivalent to in an acre of soil 6 inches deep.	Equal to ammonia.	Magnesia.	Ferric oxide.
Moss Vale	Sandy loam	.....	1.17	0.48	98.35	8.4	68.0	16.35	7.25	0.0235	470	0.1557	3,114	0.112	224	0.0352	705	0.136	0.0550	.....
Springwood, sandstone	Clay loam	2.2	1.4	0.2	96.2	3.0	43.2	42.0	11.8	0.0689	1,378	0.0396	792	0.0994	1,988	0.0833	1,666	0.1207	.....	.....
Rookwood, sandstone	Heavy loam	8.9	8.9	.....	82.2	4.0	25.9	62.9	7.2	0.0342	684	0.0447	894	0.1218	2,436	0.0777	1,554	0.1479	.....	.....
Thirlmere, sandstone	Clayey loam	2.18	5.61	0.12	92.09	7.0	24.2	57.9	11.9	0.0613	1,226	0.0625	1,650	0.1526	3,052	0.0884	1,768	0.1853	.....	.....
Guilford, Hawkesbury sandstone.	Heavy clay loam	6.26	2.80	0.17	96.77	3.80	19.6	64.63	11.97	0.0282	564	0.0470	940	0.1624	3,248	0.1879	3,758	0.1972	.....	.....
Tamworth, volcanic	Clayey	1.79	0.79	0.64	96.78	3.9	13.8	71.16	11.14	0.7572	15,144	0.0991	1,982	0.1148	2,296	0.4652	9,304	0.13947	0.3984	.....
Pittwater	Cave deposit	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	17.2930	345,860	0.0096	192	.....	.....	0.0523	1,046	.....	0.0594	.....
Pennant Hills, sandstone.	Clay loam	2.69	5.77	0.10	91.44	3.5	21.0	62.99	12.51	0.0701	1,402	0.0410	820	0.1820	3,640	0.1029	2,058	0.221	.....	3.09
Liverpool, sandstone	Sandy loam	0.88	0.56	0.07	98.49	1.80	75	17.54	5.66	0.0466	932	0.0127	254	0.0896	1,792	0.0192	384	0.1068	.....	1.1782
Kenthurst Dural, Hawkesbury sandstone	Clayey loam	0.8	8.23	0.07	90.9	2.8	23.1	69.52	4.58	0.1242	2,484	0.0356	712	0.1526	3,052	0.0723	1,446	0.1853	0.1032	3.6440
Belmore, sandstone	Heavy clayey loam	13.85	6.30	.....	79.85	4.6	29.9	57.8	7.7	0.0364	728	0.0180	360	0.0756	1,512	0.0295	590	0.0918	.....	3.9182
Gilmore, granitic	Clayey loam	.....	.....	0.05	99.95	2.3	46.9	44.55	6.25	0.4976	9,952	0.0919	1,838	0.0924	1,848	0.2370	4,740	0.1122	0.6562	4.4388
Penrith, sandstone	....do	0.05	0.03	0.24	99.68	1.4	33.9	61.36	3.34	0.1295	2,590	0.0487	974	0.0756	1,512	0.1162	2,324	0.0918	0.1936	2.1920
Do	....do	0.15	2.85	0.74	96.26	3.12	29.45	62.46	4.97	0.1707	3,414	0.0619	1,238	0.1004	2,008	0.0698	1,396	0.1292	0.2436	4.3566
Hexham, sandstone	Swampy soil	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	65.981	10.025	12.540	0.3920	7,840	0.0220	440	Not determined.		0.1020	2,040	.....	0.0781	3.960
Bargo	Sandy loam	2.42	1.60	0.22	95.76	3.05	66.77	23.21	6.97	0.0602	1,204	0.0303	606	0.0644	1,288	0.0516	1,032	0.0782	0.733	2.4660
Field of Mars, sandstone.	....do	17.05	5.88	0.18	76.89	5.95	46.6	32.89	11.56	0.2800	5,600	0.0365	730	0.1736	3,472	0.0849	1,698	0.2108	0.1182	3.6168
Richmond, sandstone	Light sandy loam.	2.88	1.16	0.07	95.89	0.83	75.1	21.26	2.81	0.2477	4,954	0.0264	528	0.0448	896	0.0899	6,798	0.0544	traces	4.4388
Batlow, basaltic	Clay loam	0.10	2.15	0.11	97.64	1.33	34.25	56.26	8.16	0.1304	2,608	0.0400	800	0.1260	2,520	0.1791	3,582	0.1530	0.2400	3.5620
Do	Loam	0.14	2.17	.....	97.61	3.2	47.75	44.77	4.28	0.1218	2,436	0.0472	944	0.0840	1,680	0.2724	5,448	0.1020	0.2689	4.8224
Allendale	Sandy loam	.....	1.80	0.26	97.94	0.92	73.2	33.73	2.15	0.0504	1,008	0.0119	238	0.0532	1,064	0.0240	480	0.0646	traces	.....
Narramine	....do	.....	3.58	0.28	90.14	1.92	57.80	35.65	4.63	0.1624	3,248	0.0292	584	0.0986	1,372	0.1797	3,594	0.0833	0.1689	.....
Morpeth	Clay loam	0.03	.....	0.04	99.91	7.1	17.7	60.79	14.41	0.3392	6,784	0.1591	3,182	0.2786	5,572	0.1731	3,462	0.3383	0.6944	3.0680
Tacking Point, Port Macquarie.	....do	0.05	0.27	0.06	99.62	6.9	18.0	60.87	14.23	0.1220	2,440	0.0259	518	0.1792	3,584	0.0251	502	0.2176	0.3532	4.6032
North Wagga, granitic	....do	0.68	10.25	0.06	89.01	2.00	35.18	37.44	5.38	0.1968	3,936	0.0334	668	0.0770	1,540	0.1958	3,916	0.0925	0.2385	3.288

Table of soils analyzed by the analytical chemist of the Agricultural Department—Continued.

Locality and geological formation of surrounding country.	Nature of soil.	Mechanical analysis.					Analysis of fine soil.			Determination of substances soluble in hot hydrochloric acid of 1.10 specific gravity.										
		Stones of more than ¼ inch diameter.	Coarse sand of more than ⅛ inch diameter.	Root fibers.	Fine soil.	Moisture.	Sand.	Impalpable matter, chiefly clay.	Organic substances and water of combination.	Lime.	Equivalent to in an acre of soil 6 inches deep.	Phosphoric acid.	Equivalent to in an acre of soil 6 inches deep.	Nitrogen.	Equivalent to in an acre of soil 6 inches deep.	Potash.	Equivalent to in an acre of soil 6 inches deep.	Equal to ammonia.	Magnesia.	Ferric oxide.
Murrumburrah, temporary common.	Clay loam	0.59	18.13	0.09	81.14	0.70	39.39	52.45	7.46	0.1808	2,616	0.0629	658	0.0668	1,736	0.2176	4,352	0.1054	0.2818	3.6168
Gerringong Flat, basaltic.	....do	0.17	0.39	0.06	99.38	4.65	37.4	49.6	8.35	0.7208	14,416	0.0866	1,732	0.1848	3,696	0.1452	2,904	0.2244	0.6052	4.1374
Bargo	Sandy loam	2.42	1.60	0.22	95.76	3.05	66.77	23.21	6.97	0.0602	1,204	0.0303	606	0.0644	1,288	0.0516	1,062	0.0782	0.0733	2.4660
North side of railway, Ham Common, granitic.	....do	24.37	10.56	.....	65.07	0.25	63.95	33.08	2.72	0.0528	1,056	0.0164	328	0.0672	1,344	0.0408	816	0.0816	0.0605	.....
South side of railway, Ham Common.	....do	.....	0.35	.....	99.65	1.18	67.2	29.2	2.42	0.0864	1,728	0.0203	406	0.0476	952	0.0575	1,150	0.0568	0.1015	traces
Rollands Plains, Silurian.	Heavy clay	6.25	29.00	0.06	64.69	4.15	8.8	67.91	19.14	0.3952	7,904	0.0696	1,392	0.3660	7,320	0.1558	3,116	0.408	0.3225	.....
Tenterfield	Sandy loam	0.07	18.76	.....	81.47	2.0	63.45	28.77	5.78	0.4976	9,952	0.0197	394	0.2800	5,600	0.5012	10,024	0.34	1.0680	.....
Parish Tuggerah	....do	.....	10.26	.....	89.74	8.1	57.6	22.55	14.75	0.1360	2,720	0.0037	74	0.2800	5,600	0.0557	1,114	0.34	0.1799	.....
Newcastle:																				
Windsor No. 1	Light sandy loam.	0.9	1.49	0.13	97.28	2.25	71.57	20.84	5.34	0.0608	1,216	0.0348	696	0.1400	2,800	0.0985	1,970	0.1700	0.340	.....
Windsor No. 2	....do	6.16	1.38	0.06	92.40	1.05	79.62	16.42	2.91	0.0416	832	0.0187	374	0.1280	2,560	0.0730	1,400	0.1547	traces	0.9042
Windsor No. 3	Heavy clay	.....	0.12	0.05	99.83	10.1	11.5	68.42	9.95	0.1336	2,072	0.0828	1,656	0.2700	5,400	0.1616	3,232	0.3218	0.3857	5.2608
Gugamba, Glen Innes	....do	0.06	0.07	0.03	99.84	6.53	2.37	76.30	14.80	0.2040	4,080	0.1595	3,170	0.1540	3,080	0.574	1,148	0.187	0.2863	13.0424
Sutton Forest	Clay loam	0.26	0.85	0.15	98.74	5.20	18.55	64.56	11.59	0.1128	2,256	0.0092	184	0.1470	2,940	0.0555	1,110	0.1785	0.3007	6.2472
Picton Lakes	Sandy loam	13.24	1.50	2.23	83.03	1.45	67.80	25.16	5.59	0.0624	1,248	0.0192	384	0.0364	728	0.0233	466	0.0442	Traces	1.0412
Burradoo	Heavy clay	6.12	4.64	0.15	89.09	2.45	22.40	69.07	6.08	0.3448	6,896	0.0844	1,688	0.0900	1,800	0.0599	1,198	0.1103	0.0565	3.9730
Arncliffe sandstone, Hawkesbury.	Loam	6.81	26.28	0.09	66.82	2.45	52.50	38.30	6.75	0.1040	2,080	0.015	430	0.1414	2,828	0.0612	1,224	0.1717	0.0966	4.9820
Cootamundra	Red-clay loam	0.03	3.93	0.88	95.16	6.7	13.79	69.62	9.89	0.8824	17,648	0.1284	2,568	0.1940	3,880	0.4202	8,404	0.2363	0.3930	4.9868
Do	....do	0.19	8.12	0.51	91.18	2.05	23.83	67.60	6.52	0.8136	16,272	0.1213	2,426	0.1280	2,560	0.2716	5,432	0.1547	0.3165	3.2976
St. Johns park	Clay loam	1.35	11.57	0.06	87.02	3.10	18.72	69.74	8.44	0.2200	4,400	0.0563	1,126	0.1274	2,548	0.2212	4,424	0.1547	0.3344	4.4868
Canley Vale, Carlingford.	....do	8.45	11.92	0.33	79.30	4.43	16.25	67.75	11.67	0.2880	5,760	0.1402	2,804	0.1624	3,248	0.1552	3,104	0.1972	0.1874	4.6889
Hawkesbury sandstone, Gordon.	Heavy clay	3.84	4.93	0.06	91.17	3.50	10.82	75.78	9.90	0.2840	5,680	0.1049	2,098	0.1148	2,296	0.1416	2,832	0.1894	0.1562	2.7400
Thornly Winsor	....do	0.49	0.90	0.20	98.41	1.20	22.40	73.08	3.32	0.4200	8,400	0.1074	2,148	0.0728	1,456	0.0705	1,410	0.0884	0.0761	1.6440

nured.	Heavy clay	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Seven Creek, Ballina	....do	.....	.....	0.09	99.91	8.35	2.20	69.92	19.53	0.2680	5,360	0.0972	1,944	0.1862	3,724	0.0768	1,536	0.2261	0.2897	10.3030
Durandah, Tweed River irrigation.	....do	4.67	2.91	0.43	91.99	9.3	2.6	70.8	17.3	0.1996	3,992	0.0379	758	0.0332	6,664	0.0542	1,084	0.4046	0.1580	11.6176
Wentworth area	Light sandy loam	0.11	0.17	0.09	99.63	0.80	80.80	15.95	2.45	0.5600	11,200	0.0594	1,188	0.0742	1,484	0.2761	5,522	0.0901	0.2347	2.9044
Canafields, Elstonville	Heavy clay	1.49	2.26	0.02	96.23	5.3	1.0	75.7	18.0	0.476	8,152	0.4152	8,304	0.3304	6,608	0.0646	1,292	0.4072	0.1195	20.0020
Ellersea Candelo	Loam	1.81	24.75	0.10	73.34	4.55	56.10	34.98	4.37	0.5520	11,040	0.0873	1,626	0.1638	3,276	0.0768	1,536	0.1969	0.0358	1.2604
Port Macquarie	Heavy clay	1.47	5.21	None	93.32	3.90	16.30	68.31	11.49	0.3280	6,560	0.1244	2,488	0.2240	4,480	0.0358	716	0.272	0.1880	6.5760
Casino, Richmond River	Sandy loam	None	3.87	2.32	93.81	3.55	66.57	26.64	3.24	0.1008	2,016	0.0215	430	0.1218	2,436	0.0506	1,012	0.1479	0.0418	1.5344
Gosford	Loam	0.08	1.53	0.20	98.19	2.20	45.75	45.90	6.15	0.1456	3,912	0.0750	1,500	0.1330	2,660	0.1619	1,238	0.1615	0.0480	1.4348
Bijiji, Corowa	Clay loam	None	0.84	None	99.16	1.63	26.05	69.15	3.15	0.6688	13,376	0.0890	1,780	0.0658	1,316	0.0650	1,300	0.0799	0.0938	2.2468
Blayney	Heavy clay	None	2.24	0.31	97.45	1.08	3.45	92.29	3.18	0.1672	3,344	0.0435	870	0.0364	728	0.0355	710	0.0442	0.1225	2.1372
Jamberoo	Clay loam	1.91	5.88	0.01	92.70	5.18	22.82	57.55	14.45	0.3865	7,730	0.0854	1,708	0.2744	5,488	0.0534	1,068	0.3352	0.0796	4.5484
Deepwater	Sandy loam	0.82	44.15	0.13	54.90	0.60	59.20	38.22	1.98	0.0480	960	0.0537	1,074	0.0672	1,344	0.0202	404	0.816	0.0332	0.9316
Jawbone, near Wellington.	Heavy clay	0.6	8.33	0.05	91.02	4.70	12.35	76.83	6.12	0.7120	14,240	0.3899	7,798	0.1498	2,996	0.4298	8,456	0.1819	0.8944	4.3840
Kurrajong Scrub, One Tree Hill, Comobella.	....do	0.11	4.07	0.06	95.76	5.00	18.2	66.11	10.69	0.7792	15,584	0.1187	2,374	0.2576	5,152	0.4136	8,272	0.3128	0.3716	4.4388
Alstonville	....do	0.23	0.52	0.17	99.08	5.98	7.00	69.13	17.89	0.0432	864	0.1054	2,108	0.3319	6,636	0.0394	788	0.4029	0.0966	5.4800
Currency Creek	Clay loam	7.95	14.16	0.16	77.73	3.13	23.45	67.72	5.70	0.0800	1,600	0.0436	872	0.0840	1,680	0.1296	2,592	0.102	0.1156	3.2880
Pitt water	Peaty	0.11	2.71	1.80	95.38	11.40	19.62	21.75	47.23	0.7224	14,448	0.0676	1,352	0.7364	14,728	0.1900	3,800	0.894	0.6156	4.004
Maude, near Hay	Clay loam	0.15	2.86	.....	96.99	7.15	23.45	62.37	7.03	0.7040	14,080	0.0353	706	0.0700	1,400	0.4108	8,216	0.83	0.9964	2.6304
Blayney	Heavy clay	.....	2.41	0.21	97.38	2.08	17.80	75.08	5.04	0.2480	4,960	0.0307	614	0.1162	2,324	0.1275	2,550	0.1411	0.1989	1.4796
Palmers Island	....do	0.04	1.00	0.17	98.79	10.15	8.63	75.83	5.37	0.2104	4,208	0.0793	1,586	0.1792	3,584	0.2328	4,656	0.2176	0.4900	3.0688
Agricultural College farm, Richmond.	Sandy loam	.....	0.59	0.05	99.36	1.4	64.75	31.06	2.79	0.1144	2,288	0.0123	246	0.0756	1,512	0.0947	1,894	0.918	0.1860	1.2604
Do	....do	.....	0.79	0.01	99.20	1.1	67.35	29.20	2.35	0.0824	1,648	0.0335	670	0.0602	1,204	0.1071	2,142	0.731	0.1185	2.3564

2. WATER.*

ARTESIAN WELLS.

To the citizens of a country like the United States, where artesian wells are reckoned by thousands, this subject can not but be familiar; particularly as the Department which deals with such matters has collated an immense fund of information, whence a knowledge of the temperature, volume, chemical character, hydrostatic pressure, and strata can be easily derived.

Much on similar lines is now being done by a special branch connected with the mines department of this colony, under the supervision of Mr. J. W. Boultbee, officer in charge water conservation, to whom I am indebted for much valuable information on this subject.

Attention was first drawn to the question in 1879, when an artesian well was successfully sunk by a private individual on his station and water was tapped at a depth of 140 feet, rose 26 feet above the curb, and has never since ceased to flow. In 1884 the Department made their first essay in artesian boring some 50 miles from Bourke, when water was struck at 89 feet, rising 8 feet at the rate of 1,000 gallons per hour. Other bores succeeded in finding water, but unfortunately it was in two cases so impregnated with saline matter as to be useless for human consumption.

In 1885-'86 two other sinkings were worked; one at 960 feet gave water to the height of 20 feet at the rate of 33,000 gallons per day, but of inferior quality; the other, near Dubbo, was put down for coal, when water of a mineral type was found at 550 feet, rising at the rate of 1,000 gallons per hour to a height of 30 feet.

In 1887 a bore was sunk a depth of 965 feet about 100 miles from Bourke, when the water rose 8 feet above the curb, yielding 22,464 gallons per day; the salt water at the surface had not, however, been properly shut off, and consequently the water was of inferior quality.

About this time the contract system had proved a great success in Queensland, and it was resolved to adopt the same measures in New South Wales. Tenders were invited for some 30,000 feet of boring, which resulted in the following maximum prices being asked: Surface to 1,000 feet, 27*s.* per foot; 1,000 feet to 1,500 feet, 35*s.* per foot; 1,500 feet to 2,000 feet, 40*s.* per foot.

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*WATER CONSERVATION, DEPARTMENT OF MINES,
Sydney, 4th August, 1892.

SIR: Referring to your communication of the 22d June last, addressed to Mr. James W. Boultbee, officer in charge, Water Conservation Department, asking for an expression of his opinion on that portion of your report which treats on the subject of artesian wells and water supply, etc., I have the honor to inform you that Mr. Boultbee has gone through the same and found it to be correct.

I have the honor to be, sir, your most obedient servant,

HARRIE WOODS,
Under Secretary.

ALEX. CAMERON, Esq.,
Vice and Acting Consul of the United States, Sydney.

One contractor found no water at 1,475 feet for the Bourke trucking yards. At Native Dog (45 miles north from Bourke) water was struck, with a supply of 2,000,000 gallons per day, at 475 feet. Two others found water at 166 feet with 120,000 gallons, and at 180 feet with 00,000 gallons respectively. The rest are not yet completed.

In these tenders the contractor provides all necessary plant, tools, ower, wood, water, and labor for sinking the bores to such depth may be requisite, not exceeding 2,000 feet, whilst the Government rnishes and carts all necessary casing to the site of the bore, the nd used being that known as Stewart's "Russian brand," swelled d collar joint.

The Bourke bores, so far as they have been completed, are computed have cost, casing included, 35*s*. per foot, as against 37*s*. in Queensnd.

This would appear to be a very reasonable rate, when the cost of a mplete plant, placing it on the ground, mostly in isolated and outng spots, say some £2,000, is taken into account. That the contctor's risk is considerable may be gathered from the fact that in the se of the Bourke trucking yards (before referred to) five bores were nk and all the tools and casing in them lost before the beds of drift ere got through and a settled formation reached at 600 feet. Here d rock was found and the bore abandoned at a depth of 1,467 feet.

In the Walgett district, some 500 miles north of Sydney, the owners a station put down a bore of 2,042 feet, tapping water which just se over the curb at the rate of 200 gallons per day. The rotten ture of strata, which made it impracticable to get the casing own, obliged the sinkers to abandon the idea of going lower for a rger supply, but the Government are putting down another bore me miles farther to the eastward in order to solve the problem of the istence of a deep-seated supply in the northeast district of the lony.

At Nyngan, in the Cobar district, 377 miles west of this city, is anher interesting bore, which, should water be struck, will open up an tirely new field. The same difficulties which were found at Bourke ere experienced here, and the first hole was abandoned at 500 feet.

It is in the selection of sites that the greatest care has to be exercised, as to place the successful bores in such a way as to not only water id stock routes, but also to serve to definitely test the geological foration of a large area of unexploited country. Thus, if one bore strikes e Tertiary formation on the east line and another does the same on e north and west, it may be inferred that the intervening country is e same; consequently, private individuals would have definite and liable information on which to proceed to sinking operations on their ations. When a site is selected by government (and these sites are no means confined to any certain district) measures are immediately ken to secure a reservation of land sufficient for the protection of the

bores and to serve as a public watering place. The existing stock traffic and the increase which might be expected to follow the provision of water had to be carefully considered in selecting the stock routes, which in their present state are almost impassable in times of drought.

In the southwest and northeast districts of New South Wales wells are few and far between, seldom exceeding 200 feet in depth, whilst the natural water supplies are very limited; insufficient indeed for domestic and stock purposes, putting irrigation entirely out of the question. These widespreading plains are as yet unexplored, geologically speaking, and it will be interesting to learn the results of the bores sunk in them, which will show whether or not they cover unknown basins of Cretaceous formation, capable of yielding unlimited water supplies, more particularly as this part of the country is almost completely beyond the reach of irrigation or water conservation plans, so that it must necessarily depend on supplies from artesian wells.

In my opening remarks I referred to the branch of the government mines department devoted to this work, whose officers have succeeded in compiling the nucleus of a very complete record of the positions, numbers, details, and sections of the artesian wells sunk throughout the colony by boring companies, private firms, individuals, etc., which must necessarily increase in value year by year, and can not fail to prove of the greatest possible service in guiding future well-sinking operations. The furnishing of this information to the department is not, unfortunately, obligatory, and it is to be hoped that in furtherance of this most important industry the law may be invoked to enforce on all who undertake artesian-well sinking the observance of certain rules, whereby they will be compelled to supply the Department with the fullest details of their operations, cores, and specimens of the water for analysis.

This latter important point which, with us in the States, meets with the consideration it merits, has so far been neglected here, due to the circumstances already explained. Consequently the department possesses only a few samples of low-quality waters from their own wells and bores. In future it is proposed to obtain specimens from every bore, with a view of determining, not so much as hitherto their fitness for stock purposes, but their chemical qualities and adaptability to irrigation. Water of a potable character has only been tested in very rare instances.

In cases where artesian water is found at comparatively shallow depths, and where the supply is dependent on the rainfall soaking into the artesian basin, this may gradually dwindle away if too large demands are made on it, according as a greater or smaller extent of water-carrying lands may be drained by the bore. In order to prevent as much as possible any waste, it is desirable to regulate the flow, for which purpose a specially designed regulating valve is in use in all the government bores, and every publicity has been given to this fact in

the hope of inducing private parties to adopt it; but, so far, no legislative enactment, such as exists in Utah for instance, has been passed with the object of preventing this waste. I am told, however, that the draft of the water conservation bill contains clauses remedying this defect, and regulations enforcing the use of proper casing are also provided, similar to those now in force in San Bernardino country, California.

For purposes of irrigation, only such artesian waters as are highly charged with alkalies or salt are unfit for use. For grain crops, the average quantity required may be roughly set down as 72,600 cubic feet or 543,485 gallons per acre. Now, one inch of rain equals 3,630 cubic feet or 22,622 gallons per acre, and it follows that a rainfall of 20 inches will yield 72,600 cubic feet, say 543,485 gallons per acre, and 640 acres would call for 46,464,000 cubic feet or 347,830,400 gallons as the equivalent of 20 inches of rain. The approximate flow per day at the Native Dog, 45 miles from Bourke, is 2,000,000 gallons per day, equal to 730,000,000 gallons per year, on which basis a supply of water equaling a rainfall of 40 inches yearly per 640 acres is available—that is to say, an area of over 1,280 acres can be irrigated on an equality with a rainfall of 20 inches yearly.

The aforesaid well cost £1,000 4*s.* 6*d*, which, added to the value of 1,280 acres of land, renders its cost so disproportionate to its value when furnished with a constant water supply of 20 inches of rain annually, that it is very evident it affords every encouragement to the sinking of artesian wells, highly beneficial to the colony at large and to the northwest districts in particular, where the Cretaceous area is presumed to be 45,000 square miles, or over 28,000,000 acres.

In the United States boring does not average more than 8*s.* per foot as against 30 to 35*s.* here, the difference arising, I am told, from the fact that, whereas in our country the strata are formed and well known, here they are yet in a drift state and unexplored; consequently the price is calculated to cover all contingent risks.

Up to the end of November, 1891, there were 18 wells (of which 9 flowing, 3 subartesian, and 5 not completed) put down by government. Contracts were let for 32 others, while 2 were approved of, but not let; 42 private bores were in existence. The deepest government well was 2,000 feet (sunk to 2,500 feet since above was penned), namely, that at Moongulla, 374 miles north of Sydney in the Inverell district, as against 2,070 of a private bore at Dunumbrae, in the same county (Finch); the former is in progress, whilst the latter supplies 300 gallons per day. Another private bore in Culgoa County, in the district of Brewarrina, about 527 miles north of Sydney, gives 28,000 gallons daily, at a depth of 2,005 feet.

The following are the analyses of five samples of artesian waters submitted to the government.

From a boring for coal, 23 miles from Dubbo.

	Grains per gallon.
Carbonate of lime	14.00
Chloride of magnesium	12.05
Oxide of iron	1.02
Alumina	trace.
Silica	21.00
Alkaline carbonates and highly charged with carbonic acid	199.38
Total fixed residue	266.66

From Cuttaburra bore, 600 miles west of Sidney.

	Grains per gallon.
Silica	1.598
Protoxide of iron	.112
Alumina	trace.
Carbonate of lime	6.664
Carbonate of magnesia	.336
Chloride of sodium (salt)	349.040
Chloride of potassium	trace.
Chloride of calcium	27.530
Chloride of magnesium	4.190
Chloride of ammonium	.642
Alkaline carbonates, organic matter, strong traces of bromide, trace of iodine and Lithia, nitrates, etc	6.712
Total fixed residue	396.872

No poisonous metal could be detected and the water was clear and free from mal odor; magnesia salts being only present in mimor quantities and the proportion of salt not being excessive it was considered fairly suitable for stock.

From Youngerrina Bore, Irrawa Company, 600 miles west of Sydney.

Constituents.	Grains per gallon.	Parts per mil.
Total solid residue	32.984	0.4712
Soluble saline matter	31.892	0.4556
Insoluble mineral matter	1.092	0.0156
Chlorine	5.100	0.7280
Equal to chloride of sodium	8.404	0.1200

The water was found to be both clear and colorless, without odor, and free from all matter in suspension. The soluble saline components consist chiefly of alkaline carbonates, salt, silica, magnesia, sulphuric acid, etc., with strong traces of lime. Silica, with traces of carbonates of lime and magnesia, forms almost entirely the insoluble portion.

From Native Dog Bore, Bourke District, 600 miles west of Sydney.

Constituents.	Grains per gallon.	Parts per mil.
Total solid residue	45.108	0.6440
Soluble saline matter	44.044	0.6292
Insoluble mineral matter	1.064	0.0153
Chlorine	4.500	0.0643
Equal to chloride of sodium	7.415	0.1059

This water was also free from odor, clear, and colorless, the alkaline rbonates being present in small quantities only. They are well apted for all domestic purposes as well as for irrigation.

t may be well to add that the alkaline carbonates, if found in large portions in artesian waters, are known to have a powerful corrosive ct on the roots of plants—diminished, however, by the addition of sum to the soil.

he effects of saline waters on stock are interesting to notice. The s most frequently found in the wells of the western district are mag- ia and soda, with sulphuric acid or chlorine. All these salines ig in ordinary use by veterinary practitioners, their action is well wn, from 1 to 3 ounces of chloride of sodium (salt) for cattle and 1 drams for sheep daily, being a valuable assistant to digestion, whilst 4 ounces of magnesia salts for cattle and a proportionate quantity sheep would have an exactly contrary and pernicious effect. Cattle drink from 5 to 12 gallons and sheep from 1 to 2 gallons per day, whilst many animals on a station are strong enough to accustom nselves to saline water, others, less robust, waste away and die.

n consulting the geological map of New South Wales, it will be id that the artesian-water area is closed by the impervious paleo- rocks of the main dividing range in the southeast, whilst to the h and west it forms part of the Queensland and South Australian lred basin, although to the southwest appearances tend to indicate it is bounded by a low ridge of impervious paleozoic rocks, run- g from Dubbo to the Barrier Ranges by way of Nymagee and Cobar. very possible, however, that the water may find an outlet under level of the Darling River bed on to the coast near the mouth of Murray, whilst going northwards the artesian basin is bounded on east by the main dividing range as far as the Gulf of Carpentaria.

he whole area of Queensland may be estimated as Cretaceous (with exception of a very small portion) from Nevertire to the above- ied gulf and is closed by the Paleozoic rocks of Cloncurry to the t. Some of its waters may drain southwesterly by way of Lake e to the Australian Bight, or follow the Darling into the ocean near nong. There is hardly any room for doubting that artesian waters ulate and eventually discharge their saline matter into the ocean thus preserve their freshness, as it is well known that rainwater olating into the Tertiary formations and remaining stagnant rap- becomes salt, but is found fresh when overlying porous beds of the taceous formation, due to the facilities afforded for circulation. The ply of the artesian basin of New South Wales evidently has its ce in the rainfall of the upper Darling catchment, where the aver- rainfall during the ten years 1878–'88 has been estimated at 22.14 es, of which 1¼ per cent only was discharged by the Darling at rke. Putting to the account of evaporation a consumption of 48½

per cent, the other half of the rainfall, say 11.07 inches, is still left to percolate, and is recoverable by wells and bores.

So far the aeration of artesian water, in order to render it suitable for plant-life support, which has proved a success in the United States, has not been put to the test in this country; at the same time it is believed that the desired effect would result from exposure to atmospheric influences in shallow tanks.

There is abundant evidence to warrant the belief, in the first place, that at least half the rainfall of New South Wales percolates into the artesian beds, evaporation and the natural flow to the ocean absorbing the remainder; in the second place, that the former half can be recovered and utilized; and in the third that the crying want of this country—viz, water—can thereby be satisfied. Awell conceived and effectually carried out scheme of water conservation and irrigation would convert the now arid zones of New South Wales into fertile lands, on which a highly desirable class of inhabitants could be settled to the mutual advantage of themselves and the colony, always provided—and this is a *sine qua non*—that railway communication with the various market outlets be established at rates for carriage which would allow produce to be forwarded at a price which could compete with importers. A freightage of 7 pence per bushel for only 505 miles, the distance from Bourke to Sidney, renders this an impossibility. In fact, the existing tariff of railway carriage for every species of produce may be designated as almost prohibitive, fruit, for instance, being constantly thrown away in the interior, as it can not be laid down in Sidney at a remunerative rate. Yet all these regions, now almost solely devoted to pastoral pursuits, sparsely populated, and not capable of carrying more than one sheep to every 4 acres, could by the adoption of the above measures be ere long converted into a flourishing country with a fine yeoman population. Some 14,000,000 acres in the Northwest are available for homestead leases to be taken up by a class unable to afford the expenditure of £1,500 or £2,000 for an artesian well, but if fully competent and experienced well-sinkers would only avail themselves of the grand openings which exist in this vast area for their operations, and reduce the charge to 8*s*. or 10*s*. per foot, they would doubtless find plenty of lucrative employment, as leaseholders would gladly avail of their services at a reasonable figure.

In Queensland, 80 private bores have been sunk, one of which, No. 3, at Darr River Downs, has a depth of 2,700 feet and yields 50,000 gallons per diem; 51 are overflowing; in 6 the water rises to within 4 to 50 feet of the surface; 1 is in progress, having reached a depth of 500 feet; and 22 are either pumped or no particulars respecting them are available.

I forward a photograph of the Charleville well, 1,370 feet deep, and 3,000,000 gallons of water per diem, the temperature being 106° and the cost having been £1,641.

On the Widgeegowra Creek, near the Warrego River, a bore was sunk some 360 feet, when water was struck in drift (of a golden color and coarse), which rose to within 30 feet of the surface and yielded 100,000 gallons per diem. When the rods were suspended in the water from the derrick, the rush of a subterranean river could easily be heard, the rods coming up bent like a fishing rod. The water proved to be of a saline character, and was not only well suited for domestic and irrigation purposes, but also proved potable. All through the fearful drought of 1884, 16,000 ewes and lambs, besides horses and cattle, were watered from this source.

So far as legislation is concerned Queensland is on a par with this colony, and the work is still in a state of comparative infancy.

In South Australia a wide cretaceous basin extends from the borders of Queensland and New South Wales to where the bed rock outcrops, near Farina, and although the actual limits to the north and west have not been ascertained, the area has been estimated at 100,000 square miles. The borings are greatly dispersed, widely distant from each other, the chief being at Hergott, Coward, Strangway, and Mungamurtee, whence supplies of 100,000, 1,200,000, 1,200,000, and 52,000 gallons, respectively, were obtained at depths of 342, 308, 365, and 237 feet, at a temperature ranging from 86° to 90°; but, so far as I can gather, nothing has as yet been done in the way of putting these waters to any practical use for irrigation purposes.

DAMS (PONDS).

By far the larger portion of the western division of the colony is, comparatively speaking, destitute of water except during the winter months. A great deal has been done by stock-owners to remedy this defective state of things by supplying this essential want, both on their own freeholds and on the crown lands leased by them from government, by constructing tanks, dams, and by well-sinking. As I have just shown, artesian wells have been sunk both by government and by private enterprise, and the same remark is applicable to the other means of furnishing a water supply. Tanks are sunk in various ways, varying in cost from 8*d.* to 1*s.* 2*d.* per cubic yard, according to the time of year and the scarcity or otherwise of grass and water; they range from 2,000 to 20,000 cubic yards. The smaller tanks are generally dug out by hand, with the help of a horse and dray, whilst the larger are sunk with plow and scoop (*i. e.*, duck scraper), worked by horse or bullock teams, more frequently the latter. They are, for the most part, prismoidal or rectangular in form, and are so excavated as to leave sloping sides or batter, generally 3–1, with a depth of from 8 to 20 feet. The first thing to be considered in selecting a site for a tank is, in what position will it be of most service to the stock, subject, of course, to its being placed so as to present the greatest facilities for collecting water. Where tanks are put down the country is generally

flat; consequently the point at which the greatest depression exists must necessarily be selected, provided the surrounding soil be sufficiently holding and retentive. The soil, when excavated, is piled around the sides of the hole, so as to form an embankment, thus raising the sides of the tank, which, if the fall of the ground is sufficient, is filled by gravitation. When a deposit of water is formed outside the tank which does not drain off into it, a steam pump is often put into use, the water being pumped into the tank over the embankment, thus increasing the depth of water and rendering the supply practically permanent, unless some unusual call is made on the tank. In a very few exceptional cases, and that only in times of great drought, when it occasionally turns brackish and undrinkable, does the water of the lakes, rivers, creeks, and lagoons become unfit for or injurious to stock. Water got at 50 to 400 feet by sinking is often unsuitable, but at greater depths the artesian supply is excellent. In the hilly, mountainous country on the eastern side of the colony the water supply is, to a great extent, natural; on the other hand, the plain country is dependent on the Darling, the Lachlan, the Murrumbidgee, and the Murray rivers and their tributaries, and where this source fails water for the sheep is artificial and is provided by 32,784 tanks, at an average cost of £192 19*s.*; 31,933 dams, at an average cost of £82 11*s.* 6*d.*; 3,744 wells, at an average cost of £239 3*s.*, with 42 artesian bores, the result of private enterprise, and 13 completed, 5 in course of construction, and 32 contracted for by government.

IRRIGATION.

I propose to supplement my remarks on the subject of water conservation and irrigation by a few observations on what has been done in other lands in the same direction, so as to afford an opportunity for comparison with the existing state of the movement in New South Wales.

In our own country, as you are aware, each State has its own regulations for its rivers, lakes, etc., mostly in accordance with the English riparian rights law; the latter Mr. Deakin reports as having had most seriously damaging effects on irrigation schemes generally, both in operation and in prospective, as it appears to have produced a chaotic state of uncertainty as to claimants' rights to the water of which they have availed themselves, a most unfortunate state of things when we consider that the inhabitants of southern California, some 150,000 in number, depend almost entirely on irrigation for a livelihood. This, however, must necessarily entail such legislation as will lead to a satisfactory settlement of riparian rights, and a solution of the difficulty will doubtless be a matter of interest to all engaged in irrigation projects in this colony. In Great Britain authorities appear to differ considerably as to the rights of water proprietors, although seemingly in accord on the one point that no one is justified in diverting for his own purposes such quantities of a river's water as will diminish the supply

farther down the stream. An endless number of boards and commissions exist, which, whilst nominally fulfilling the duties for which they were appointed, viz, the prevention of floods, the facilitating of navigation, the drainage of swamps, fish-breeding, etc., in reality oppose and obstruct each other's projects and are simply a hindrance to all enterprise in this direction. Apart from the loss entailed by the delays resulting from this clashing of opposing interests, £150,000 are, in one case, reported to have been expended in getting a bill passed through Parliament conferring the powers necessary to carry out much-needed improvements. Imagine fourteen district boards having authority over 30 miles of river!

The Spanish law of 1866 contains two hundred and seventy-one clauses dealing with the rights to rain water, rivers, lakes, and supplies having a subterranean source, which it declares to be the property of the public, as well as marshes, whilst the owner of an estate who sinks a well is sole proprietor of the water it yields. It grants to all owners of land in the neighborhood of irrigation works the right of making the water courses necessary for conveying water to their lands through those of intervening proprietors on payment of an equitable remuneration for the privilege.

In some cases of concessions granted to companies for a term of years a stipulation is made that at the end of ninety-nine years the irrigation canals shall revert to the State.

In Italy the same or a very analogous law is in force, the State being declared the owner of all rivers, etc., and all works for supplying water, canals, etc., must obtain the previous sanction of the Government before they can be undertaken.

To what a great extent the question of irrigation in France is associated with the inland navigation of that country and the value placed upon this system may be judged from the fact that, not long since, forty millions sterling were voted for the development of the rivers, lakes, etc., of France, where irrigation is largely practiced, with the result that land is enhanced 50 per cent in value. Some difficulty arises at times from the fact that the code only claims for the State such rivers and streams as are navigable, but this has been surmounted by the adoption of a principle of local government.

Upper India, in the canal act of 1873, possesses a very concise measure for the conservation and supply of water derived chiefly from the enactments of France, Spain, and Italy.

A similar act in northern India starts by asserting that natural rivers and streams, lakes, and still waters belong to the state. In no case are any large irrigation schemes worked by other than Government enterprise.

In Prussia, Bavaria, and Saxony, where the management of such matters is based on the law of France, the results are equally good, the state being absolute master.

From the foregoing we gather that legislative interference, although

it has proved to a certain extent a failure from the action of the riparian-rights law, has had, when administered as in Spain, Italy, France, and India, a most beneficial and fostering effect on water conservation and irrigation works.

In this colony a new branch of the mines department was formed in 1890, called the "water conservation department," under the immediate superintendence of a chief engineer, Mr. H. G. McKinney, M. I. C. E., to whom I am indebted for much valuable information. Owing to the difficulties and delays always attendant on the formation of a new department and the absence of legislative powers to commence the extensive operations which are in contemplation, but little has been done during the twelve months of the department's existence, except preliminary surveying, leveling, etc., in order to ascertain the best mode of turning to good account the supply of water available.

The position most favored by the rainfall of New South Wales is in the area of 50,000 square miles from the summit of the dividing range to the coast, but here irrigation, it is thought, will be restricted to the superior lines of products, such as orchards, vineyards, etc. It is on the extensive alluvial plains of the country west of the dividing range that irrigation and water conservation will have full scope for development. The drainage area of the Murray embraces 234,400 square miles west of the dividing range, if we except some 20,000 square miles of dry country in the extreme northwest and the basins of the Snowy River and Lake George. The immense undulating prairie lands, which constitute 158,900 square miles of this area, are not, however, available for catchment purposes, nor do they add anything to the river waters. The effective area is consequently reduced to 75,500 square miles, and of this a goodly portion is only moderately useful as catchment. But the soil of these plains where the rainfall is unreliable only requires irrigating to render it highly fertile, and it is in this area that irrigation may be expected to yield the greatest beneficial returns.

The crying evil at present in New South Wales is the nonexistence of legislative measures to afford protection and encouragement to water conservation. Pastoralists and stock-owners can, it is true, supply their necessities by tanks or wells, but it is only in a few districts that the latter can be relied on. Those who have a water frontage of any kind, whilst entitled to use the water flowing past, are not allowed to conserve the surplus and are open to an action if they attempt to take advantage of the latter for irrigating purposes.

The newly formed department contemplates preserving water for domestic and live stock use, for mining and manufacturing, and for water power, according to the districts suited to each. After due provision made for domestic purposes, which naturally has a first claim, live-stock requirements would next be considered; then irrigation, and the demands of navigation should follow, if practicable. Irrigation on the wide plains of the western and central portions of the colony during

the prevalence of droughts should prove remunerative, if obtainable at a moderate figure, by the increase on the growth of native grasses. Experience has proved this to be the case with lucern and other fodder, but has only been tried to a very small extent.

Landholders are nearly unanimous in their opinion that even in almost solely pastoral districts irrigation should be fostered at the rate of 100 acres of lucern, wheat, or maize to the 10,000 acres, and furthermore, that the demand for water would be considerable if a 3-inch flooding would not cost more than 6*d.* to 1*s.* per acre. No large water-supplying works would be called for in the coastal districts except perhaps for large towns, nor for irrigation purposes, as the mean rainfall is 36¾ inches; but with regard to the rivers of the western division the subject assumes much more important proportions. One hundred and fifty-eight thousand nine hundred square miles may be taken as the noncontributing area of the river Murray drainage, where the rainfall averages from 20 to 9 inches. This river now stands preëminently first as a source of water supply for irrigation purposes, apart from its value for inland water traffic, a means of trade transport which almost invariably holds its own against railway competition.

The river Murrumbidgee has not been fairly assessed hitherto as a water supplier, for during the twelve years ending 1890 it was only in 1884, 1885, and 1888 that this river fell short of a discharge equaling a full supply.

It is considered that the Macquarie may be relied on for 700 to 1,000 cubic feet per second for three and a smaller supply for the other nine months of the year.

Surveys and observations are now going on with regard to the Lachlan and Darling rivers, and records are kept of the Namoi, Dwydir, and McIntyre.

The new department recommends the construction of works on the Murray about 7 miles from Albury, whence, by gravitation, an area of about 2,000,000 acres could be irrigated. These would, it is estimated, cost £314,000, and if a trust were to pay government interest at the rate of 4 per cent per annum, say £12,560, and £1,440 were expended in maintenance, government would have £14,000 as the annual return for their outlay. Supposing the smallest area to be constantly irrigated to be 10,000 acres each of lucern, wheat, oats, and barley, maize and sorghum, say 30,000 acres in all, and taking the lucern at 10*s.* and the rest at 5*s.* per acre, we arrive at an annual income of £10,000, which would only call for about 300 cubic feet per second, leaving the balance for pasture land, whence an abnormal call may be anticipated in times of drought. In this case it may be estimated that flooding would be wanted for about 1,400,000 acres, which, at 6*d.* per acre, gives £35,000, plus the £10,000 shown above, or a total income of £45,000 for a dry year.

On the upper Murrumbidgee the proposed works are estimated to

involve an outlay of £170,000, 4 per cent on which equals £6,800, increased by expenses of management, etc., to £9,000, capable of irrigating a total of 40,000 acres annually at 4*s.* 6*d.* per acre.

Exclusive of land £509,000 are required for constructing the Murrumbidgee Northern Canal, which is also in contemplation equal to about 6*s.* 9*d.* per acre of irrigable land, which, thus provided for during dry seasons, would be worth £1 per acre more; so this could hardly fail to prove a remunerative enterprise.

Besides the Lower Murrumbidgee Canal, a storage reservoir is projected at Lake Urana, involving an outlay of £180,000.

To detail the proposed plans for the best conservation and distribution of the waters of the Lachlan, Macquarie Darling, Namoi and Gwydir rivers would occupy too great a space in this necessarily lengthy report.

I venture to suggest the advisibility of a careful watch being kept on the effects of the system of legislation adopted for the management of water conservation and supply by the United States and Victoria, as in both countries there are great points of similitude with this colony. The arid regions of the former are now worth $30, which, before irrigation was available, would not realize the upset price of $1.25 per acre, and Victorian trusts, who rate property according to the advantages accorded to it, have certainly raised the value of land in a like proportion.

The system prevailing in Upper India would appear to be based on equitable grounds. There two sources of income exist: one, from the landowners, the value of whose property is enhanced by the canals, etc. the other, from the actual consumer of the water.

Would not irrigation, I venture to suggest, tend to overcome the difficulty experienced in inducing young men to remain on farms, instead of flocking into the cities, due in a great measure, I opine, to the straits to which they are put for water in times of drought more especially, and its general scarcity, which often renders all their efforts and labor stale and unprofitable, crushing whatever natural inclination they may have for a pastoral or agricultural life? What offers a greater contrast than the Australian complaining that he can not live on 640 acres and the South Californian making his pile on a 10-acre block? Indeed it would appear that small areas go *pari passu* with success.

A question which does not appear among those submitted to me, but which I believe to be of great importance in this colony, is that of watering places for stock, and I propose to add a few remarks on this subject, in addition to those already noted under the heading Ponds or Dams.

The administration, construction, etc., of the public watering places are vested in the secretary for mines and agriculture, the executive consisting of the officer in charge of water conservation and his officers, some 90 in number, including care-takers. At present there are 83

under lease, from which the revenue derived is £3,022 11*s.* per annum. When unleased, a care-taker is appointed, whose duty it is to prevent trespass, loafing, misuse of water, etc. He is authorized to demand any drover's permit before watering his stock or granting agistment. Special provisions are made for cases where steam or horse gear, etc., are used. The care-taker generally has a two-roomed residence and the use of the paddock. He has to furnish a weekly return of the state of the water, pasture, and rainfall and, quarterly, of his daily occupation, *i. e.*, stock watered, agisted, etc. These reports, particularly as regards the condition of each watering place, are of great value to the drover, etc., are collated and supplied weekly to the press and also to the stock and station agents who care to apply for them.

The scale of charge is, horses, per head, 2*d.;* cattle, per head, 1*d.*; sheep, per 100, or portion of, 1*s.;* goats or pigs, per 100, 1*s.* 4*d.*; water in bulk or for domestic uses, 1*s.* per 100 gallons.

These works have undoubtedly been the means of saving the lives of many human beings and of an incalculable number of stock, besides enabling outlying stations to send their wool in any seasons to the metropolis, instead of storing it season after season for want of transit. It is true that these works are directly reproductive only to a very small extent, but the many side issues involved can not but conduce to the general progress and well-being of the colony.

3. SOIL AND NATURAL STATE OF COUNTRY.

The geological sketch map of this colony issued by the department of mines gives full information on the subject of the geological formation of this country and the matter is also touched on in the climate section of this report. But, as the area of New South Wales is two and a half times that of Great Britain and Ireland and embraces 198,848,000 acres, extending from the twenty-ninth to the thirty-sixth parallel of south latitude, and from the one hundred and forty-first to the one hundred and fifty-third meridian east of Greenwich, it naturally follows that almost every climate and soil is to be found in this colony. It is only in exceedingly rough mountain country and in the droughty northwestern districts that the land, estimated at some 5,000,000 acres in round numbers, is unfit for occupation, under present conditions, it being admitted that, with irrigation, the western country may be made available for fruit-growing and general husbandry moreover nearly every area suitable for settlement is also capable of some description of cultivation. In the coastal valleys, the brush lands of the Tweed, Richmond, Macleay, Clarence, and Manning, the sandy alluvial formations of the Hunter and the Hawkesbury, and in the land on the banks of the Shoalhaven, Clyde, Turon, and other southern rivers some of the richest soil of the world is to be found. In the coastal region both semitropical and European fruit trees are to be found, oranges, lemons, shaddocks, etc., grow well, and maize also

yields abundantly; sugar cane is cultivated on the northern rivers only, and wheat, to some extent, in the valley of the Hunter, but not farther north. Sugar cane, coffee, and tobacco find a genial soil in the northern coast districts, whilst the vine, when planted, finds a home all over the colony.

A variety of soil is found in the high plateau of the great dividing range, which is admirably adapted for the products of cold and temperate regions, such as wheat, barley, oats, etc.

The alluvial deposits in the western division of the colony form an excellent soil, and it is only the scarcity of abundant and regular rains that prevents the successful cultivation of all kinds of cereals.

Of the total area of the colony only 0.43 per cent is cultivated and 0.19 per cent has been sown with artificial grasses for dairy farms. Tenant occupiers, crown tenants included, cultivate 22.5 and landowners 77.5 per cent of the total area under crop, exclusive of that under grass.

The greater part of what is known as the suburban electorates is devoted to the cultivation of orchard produce, and in the immediate neighborhood of the metropolis market gardens cover a large area.

The total area under crop in the central coast division is 72,299 acres, tenant occupiers cultivating 31,427 acres. Maize, potatoes, and other crops are largely grown in this district.

In that of the Hunter River the lower part is occupied by a mining and agricultural population, growing maize, lucern, potatoes, and grape vines, whilst the upper Hunter River district forms one of the most flourishing pastoral portions of New South Wales.

The south coast districts are the head centers of the dairy farming interests. Generally speaking tenant farmers occupy a larger cultivated area than the landowners themselves, the total area devoted to agricultural and dairy purposes being 227,488 acres.

The north coast districts contain 122,276 acres under crop, with 81,077 laid down with grass, 25,030 acres fallow, and 61,036 acres prepared for cultivation, the chief crops being maize and sugar.

In the central table land the proportion of land cultivated by the landowners is 74 per cent, whilst the remaining twenty-six are worked by tenant farmers, wheat being the chief staple.

Of the land under crop in the southern table lands, tenants only hold 17.4 per cent, as against 82.6 per cent cultivated by the landowners, wheat, barley, maize, potatoes, and tobacco being the principal crops.

Similarly placed is the northern part of the table land as regards crops, potatoes and tobacco excepted, but only 56,625 acres out of 3,118,453 of alienated lands are under crop, tenant occupiers figuring for 4,868 acres. Besides, 13,806 acres were laid down in grass, 76,326 were prepared for agriculture, and 25,847 were left fallow.

On the western slopes of the great dividing range pastoral pursuits hold the first place, agriculture being comparatively neglected. In

the central division, however, 31,308 acres are in the hands of the original selectors, 71,728 are ready for plowing, 8,952 lie fallow, 2,316 are held by tenants, and 1,860 are in grass. In the northern division, 7,912 acres are worked by the owners of the soil, 695 by tenant farmers, 1,441 are in grass, 5,302 fallow, and 13,213 are prepared for future agricultural purposes. In the southwestern division some 182,183 acres are under crop, chiefly wheat, with vines in next rank of importance, besides which, 35,024 acres were left fallow, 23,019 were in grass, and 253,638 were cleared. In the great western plains, extending on either side of the Darling River to the confines of Queensland, Victoria, and South Australia, no agriculture worth the name is carried on, the only attempts being a few market gardens and orchards on creek or river frontages and some isolated oak paddocks, where water is obtainable from dams, tanks, or lagoons.

Although New South Wales is essentially a pastoral country and the cultivation of the soil takes a secondary position compared with stock-breeding, still neither the want of good land nor defects of climate form a bar to this industry, which, on the whole, is steadily increasing, and, in fact, when no more land is to be had for grazing and population increases, agricultural pursuits must be the alternative resource. In April, 1891, as shown by the Agricultural Department's Report, 852,704 acres were under crops, 280,839 were fallow, 388,715 were laid down in grasses, and 1,166,228 acres were cleared for future cultivation, whilst 82,213 persons, of whom 23,252 were females, gained their living by agriculture and dairy farming.

The following table shows the principal crops cultivated:

Principal crops.	Product.		Area.
	Quantity.	Value at places of growth.	
			Acres.
Wheat ..... bushels..	3,649,216	£820,073	333,233
Maize ..... do....	5,713,205	833,176	191,152
Barley ..... do....	81,383	9,156	4,967
Oats ..... do....	256,659	24,596	14,102
Other grain ..... do....	11,546	2,598	923
Wheat ..... tons..	118,020	408,060	83,827
Oats ..... do....	71,305	320,873	70,463
Barley ..... do....	1,179	5,895	938
Lucern and grass ..... do....	41,536	155,376	20,014
Straw ..... do....	22,006	44,912	.....
Green food for cattle ..... do....	.....	168,629	37,473
Potatoes ..... do....	52,971	171,571	19,406
Sugar cane ..... do....	277,252	210,249	*20,446
Tobacco ..... cwt..	10,592	19,772	1,148
Grapes for wine and brandy ..... gallons..	848,885	147,382	3,896
Grapes for table use ..... tons..	3,355	62,627	†4,148
Oranges ..... cases..	770,800	240,875	‡11,288
Market garden produce	.....	192,597	5,098
Orchard	.....	213,934	§22,355
Minor crops	.....	78,570	7,857
Permanent artificial grasses	.....	.....	388,715
Total	.....	4,131,421	1,241,419

* Including 12,102 acres unproductive.
† Including 2,076 acres unproductive vines.
‡ Including 2,551 acres oranges not yet bearing.
§ Including 6,274 acres unproductive fruit trees.

As regards the question of the drought-sustaining powers of the land, I need only give the results of the drought in 1888 to show the effects of this scourge. During that year (1888–'89) the average yield of wheat per acre fell, in Goulburn, from 10.7 bushels in 1887–'88 to 5.1, the average for the whole colony being 4.7 against 12.1, the yields of the previous crop. So ruinous were the consequences of the drought in the Mudgee and Bathurst districts that the farmers had to appeal to the government for assistance, and some 50,000 bushels of wheat, principally from New Zealand, were distributed for the next year's operations, subject to a liberal arrangement for repayment to the government.

The mean yield of wheat per acre of each colony from 1875 to 1891 was:

	Per cent.
New South Wales	13.89
Victoria	11.11
Queensland	11.62
South Australia	7.68
West Australia	11.86
Tasmania	18.40
New Zealand	25.60

New South Wales does not grow wheat sufficient for its own consumption, and draws its supplies from the neighboring colonies, the figures realized in London on South Australian grain usually determining the proportionate prices in Sydney, which have ranged from 7*s.* 6*d.* per bushel in 1864 to 3*s.* 10*d.* in 1871.

The greatest maize-producing districts are those of the north and south coasts, the area under crop in 1891 being 191,152 acres, with an average yield of 29.9 bushels to the acre.

In the same year 14,102 acres were under oats, averaging 18.2 per acre. It is worthy of note that the relative nourishing power of this cereal is in excess of that of both wheat and maize, weight for weight.

Barley is but little grown, there being only 4,937 acres devoted to this cereal in 1891, producing 81,383 bushels, chiefly in the central and western table lands, as well as in the slopes of the latter part of the colony.

The area under potatoes in 1891 was 19,406 acres, yielding 52,791 tons, widely distributed throughout the colony.

The cultivation of tobacco, for which both the soil and climate of New South Wales are admirably adapted, covered, in 1891, an area of 1,148 acres, which yielded 10,592 hundredweight. This industry, which requires special knowledge, is chiefly in the hands of Chinese, as but few Europeans appear to possess the skill needed for preparing the leaf.

Sugar-cane cultivation and its natural sequence, sugar production, do not date farther back than 1863. During the past thirteen years (say to 1890 included) the production has grown from 2 to 20,446 acres, the yield of the latter being 277,252 tons of cane; of the above, 12,102 acres were unproductive, the cane being either unfit for the mill or al-

wed to stand over for another year. The head center of cane-growing the Richmond River Electorate, where three-fifths of the whole cane-oducing area of the colony are situated.

Australia produces 3,000,000 gallons of wine, as against the great ne-growing countries, France and Italy, which figure for 795 and 798 llions, respectively.

The principal vineyards of New South Wales are to be found on the urray and Hunter, where skilled labor and all the most approved ›pliances have been adopted. At the Bordeaux Exhibition of 1882 e wines of New South Wales were classified as "grands vins," and would be difficult to dispute the award of the judges.

In the more immediate neighborhood of Sydney table grapes were ltivated to the extent of 2,072 acres during 1890, which yielded 355 tons.

Orange growing is one of the principal industries of the fruit trade New South Wales. In 1891, 11,288 acres were under cultivation for anges, of which 8,737 were productive, yielding somewhat over 1,320 ›zen of oranges and lemons per acre. The average season's yield from ll-bearing trees is usually supposed to be 3,000 dozen per acre.

Under the management of Mr. J. Ednie Brown, J. P., F. L. S., F. R. . S., director general of forests, to whose kindly assistance I am debted for these data, a new bureau has been organized by this gov-nment, entitled the forest department, by which the forest lands of is colony are placed under State control. Regardless of the ulterior nsequences of a wholesale destruction of the trees of the country, and ring only for the immediate benefit to be derived, people have wasted nber which should have been preserved for domestic and commercial urposes. The first consideration apart, the second merits attention, it is borne in mind that all the timber requisite for mining, fencing, ilway, fuel, building, and cabinetmaking can be obtained from the rests of the colony. The prudence of the action of the State in this rection is manifest if we look to openings commanded in the timber ade by both the United States and the Baltic provinces. Nor should be overlooked that belts of trees provide shelter and shade, incalcul-›le blessings to the bovine race in the dry open country where hot inds are prevalent. Again, rank growths of aquatic vegetation have deleterious effect on all animai life, and this evil may be modified, if ›t altogether removed, by planting Eucalypti in and about such places, hereby the surrounding atmosphere is purified, the leaves retaining e carbon as food and the oxygen is emitted into the air, whilst forests ›sorb the carbonic-acid gas produced by animal life.

It is impossible to ascertain definitely what is the "amount of scrub ıd timber," the only statistics available being those which I annex, ving a detailed list of the forest reserves, their approximate acreage, e timber they carry, etc.

The cost of clearing depends too much on the work to be done and the ›ality to be answered any more definitely than is involved in the ob-

vious vagueness of the question; it may range from a few shillings to £5 or £10 per acre, according as scrub or ironbark has to be destroyed. Nothing beyond experimental trials has been done in the way of cultivating indigenous grasses, etc., so that the necessary data relative to the cost of seeding are not available.

SHEEP AND WOOL.

A certain amount of diversity of opinion appears to exist among the political economists of the colony as to the soundness of the prevailing custom of allowing large tracts of land to be occupied for sheep-breeding purposes. One party leads a crusade against a state of industrial interests which countenances the existence of a class occupying vast territories almost for wool-growing purposes alone, and clamors for small holdings and the introduction of enterprise in other directions. They look upon the great strides taken by the wool trade with aversion, prophesying that the day of retribution must come when those who have given over State property (*i. e.*, the land) to the sheep cormorants will be found guilty of treason to the country. On the other hand, we have the supporters of this enormous interest content to refer the malcontents to facts, figures, and results, and maintaining that an immense continent like Australia, carrying less than two of a population to the square mile, and possessing but narrowly developed resources, could not possibly be worked to greater advantage than on the lines which, by their devotion to the production of wool, they have proved to be both remunerative to individual interests and a source of great revenue to the commonwealth. Leaving this argument to be debated by the parties concerned, the fact remains that the past season shows a wonderful expansion of the production and export of the chief staple of this colony, the growth of the business having assumed abnormal proportions since it was first initiated, as I propose to show in the course of this paper.

With an increase in population under 11 per cent, that of wool export was 28 per cent from 1887–'88 to 1890–'91, viz, from 1,020,005 to 1,309,563 bales; whence we see that, due in a certain degree to good seasons, the growth of the wool industry is in a twofold ratio to that of population. The inference is, it appears to me, that Australia pursues a wise course in directing her attention and best energies to this industry. At any rate, the next important resource, viz, mining, is at present in very bad odor here for reasons into which I need not enter, but with which those lately speculating in mining matters are, to their cost I fear, intimately acquainted. That Australia has already assumed the leading position as the wool-supplier of the universe to which its yearly increasing productive powers contribute is an incontrovertible fact, the ratio of supply, it must be borne in mind, so far as the returns of the world at large are concerned, not being fairly represented, unless it is noted that, whilst in 1891 285,000 bales were exported to the Continent direct, little or none was shipped in 1878.

Comparison with the wool product of the Argentine Republic demonstrates that from 1878 to 1891, the increase in the export from La Plata was 33 per cent; *i. e.*, from 286,000 to 380,000 bales, whilst during the same period Australian wool grew from 790,922 bales exported to England in 1878 to 1,380,963 in 1891, say 74 per cent. The public loan expenditure of Australia has served to develop pastoral enterprise and to open up the country, whereas it does not appear to have been devoted to this purpose in the Argentine Republic.

A marked increase is to be noted in the number of buyers direct from the factories of Europe and from the United States attending the colonial wool sales, which yearly attract more attention. The ratio of increase of sales in New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia is higher than that of production, for from 1889 to 1891 it rose to 39 per cent, say from 456,968 bales in the former to 634,043 in the latter year, whilst the foreign trade has taken a still more striking course, as during the past three years direct shipments from the 3 above-cited colonies to the Continent have risen from 87,172 to 285,540 bales, and there has been a net increase of 185,000 bales bought in the colonies for the Continent; about the equivalent of the difference between the total quantity sold in the colonial markets during 1891 as against that in 1889.

Up to March of this year (1892) America took 40,166 bales direct, against 30,767 in 1889, with 10,403 in London, against 7,661 in the latter year. But it is evidently to the continental buyers that is principally due the expansion of the local trade.

The quantity of wool yet remaining for sale is larger here than in the other colonies, and the result must be ascertained before any decision can be arrived at as to the relative importance of the markets of New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia. Thus far, however, Sydney holds the premier position in Australia as the emporium for wool, and it is an undoubted fact that this colony pays great attention to this product, and extensive preparations are being made here for the sale of large quantities of this great staple during the coming season.

The purchasing power of Europe for wool was last year limited by a deficient grain harvest, necessitating the expenditure of vast sums for grain in America and India. Besides, the prevailing want of confidence largely caused by the unsettled state of the labor market enhanced the value of money, kept capital locked up, and has had a most prostrating effect on industries in general. Although production has swollen by some 10 per cent, the price realized has declined in like proportion unfavorably to the grower. Given restored confidence in monetary circles and released capital wool will be purchased with a freer hand, and then Australian wool-growers may look forward to better returns than are at present generally anticipated.

I will now pass on to an epitome of the 1891–'92 season. The panic which took place amongst financial circles in the latter half of 1891, the

collapse of various building societies, the failure of the crops in Russia and consequent famine, monster strikes in England, scarcity of employment among the working classes in Germany, and our own heavy tariff on wool and its textile fabrics, all united to mark the wool season of 1891–'92 as one of low prices and unfortunate results to the grower. The minimum figures realized for surplus stock, the heavy outlay called for to meet the raids of rabbits in the western portions of the colony, and the rise in rents in many districts imposed by local land boards caused the paucity of margin resulting from the sale of this season's clip to weigh more heavily on the producer this year than on any previous occasion, although the values may be said to be under those ever before experienced. The banks called upon their clients to reduce their overdrafts, extreme caution was the order of the financial phalanx, and to obtain advances on pastoral securities became a truly Herculean task, and, finally, a great many growers, especially those whose command of capital was limited, had to abandon their holdings, being quite unable to face the enormous difficulties arrayed against them.

Still, one fact in connection with the last wool season is to be noted with pleasure, namely, that buyers were always forthcoming at current rates. No catalogues were submitted which could not have been realized in their entirety, had the holders been satisfied to take the prices offering, the buying power being always adequate and constant, so much so that several purchasers had to return to Europe without their orders being fully executed. During the season 1890–'91, 73 per cent of the total wool offered on the market was sold against 78 per cent for this (1891–'92) season, proving that, although the growers were naturally enough discontented, they realized the futility of holding on and made up their minds to accept unavoidable facts and bow to circumstances. In short, it may be said that, as a body, the growers faced the market very fairly, though some had to mourn, not having done so at the start. At one time the horizon grew clearer and prospects appeared somewhat brighter, but it was only an evanescent rise, and although the financial depression in Europe is gradually passing away and agricultural interests are in a better state than was the case a year ago, the wool market does not appear to have responded.

The clip of last season, although an excellent one, was scarcely so good all round as its immediate predecessor, as it is considered to have manifested a certain amount of deterioration in quality, too little attention having been paid to culling, cleaning, and skirting, a defect which has manifested itself during the last few years. This probably was due to plenteous seasons, to great increase, and to abundant water and grass, and in many instances to owners not dealing with the necessity for getting rid of cull sheep; good, bad, and indifferent having been kept on the runs, and the wool clip has comparatively fallen off in quality. No doubt the congested condition of many pastoral areas will lead to culling, which might be advantageously practiced on a larger scale, and

would affect a marked improvement in future clips. Furthermore, as low class wool can not be grown at a profit for a low market, this defect will doubtless be remedied ere long, particularly as most of the old and inferior sheep will be sent to be boiled down to the extent of some two or three millions to diminish the numbers on over-taxed runs. The clip was judged to fall short of its predecessor on account of a certain want of brightness in some of the southern wools, and the presence of earthy matter, seed, and burr in those from the western districts, while some of the New England fleeces, having been partly washed by the heavy rains, were lighter than has been the case for many years past.

Skirting, *i. e.*, taking off dirty edges, etc., which was commenced some twenty years ago by managers who knew something of wool, has led to some discussion in the press, when endeavors have been made to prove that this operation does not pay. Those oldest and most experienced in the trade, however, hold to the opinion that, on the contrary, more attention than ever should be paid to this point, in view of the possibility of prices continuing at a low level, as it will be more than ever necessary to produce fleeces in such a condition as will command the highest figure. It must be obvious that the buyer will not pay the same rate if he is forced to buy what he does not require in order to satisfy his wants, and this would be the result of not skirting. In former years, the Sydney market depended on speculation and scourers, and the get-up of the wool was of minor import; but now, factories are direct purchasers, and the wool must be supplied to meet the wants of each of their representatives. None of these agents come to buy fleece wool, bulky pieces, belly wool and locks, all mixed up together; each kind has its separate purchases; if they are made up in conglomerate packages, as was, it appears, the case in all parts of the colony, more particularly with some selectors' parcels from Monaro and New England last season, when belly wool and locks were rolled with each fleece, the buyer can not pay more than the figures which will allow of his resorting and disposing of what he does not require. Some people, it is asserted, are biased against skirting, because it is usually hastily, roughly, and badly done to save delay in shearing, but it does not require much foresight to predict that the time is not far distant when buyers will make it so serious a consideration that growers will be forced to send their wool to market so prepared as to meet the separate wants of each distinct branch of trade.

Skirtings are sorted into first and second pieces, stains, etc., being carefully kept out, and if the skirting has cut somewhat deeply into the fleeces, another and better class is made up, known as broken fleece. Belly wool is kept separate from all other wools, the bales being branded "bellies." Locks are those portions of the fleece which fall through the bars of the rolling tables while they are being skirted and rolled, and the sweepings of the shearing board are also packed with the locks.

This season's wools from New England, I am informed, lost value to

the extent of a penny per pound through tick stains, as also wools from the southern and cooler mountainous districts. This defect necessitates great attention on the part of those who desire to send their wool to market with the best possible appearance, as judicious dipping enhances the value of the wool, besides adding to its condition and luster, being also advantageous to the sheep by improving the animal's health when freed from parasites. Sheep should be regularly dipped every year, not later than two months after shearing, thus destroying both ticks and eggs.

The following statement has been furnished me, from which extra good and very inferior wools are eliminated, as representing the average values at the commencement, middle, and end of the busy season:

Description.	November.	January.	March.
	d.	d.	d.
Greasy—			
Superior, Merino	10	9½	None.
Average, skirted	8½	7½	7½
Inferior, unskirted	7	6	5
Crossbred	9½	9	8
Washed—			
Fleece, bright	12	11	10½
Fleece, average dull	10½	10	9
Scoured—			
Superior fleece	16	14½	14
First skin	14½	13½	12

At the opening sales in the last week of September prices were 5 per cent below those of 1890–'91, and they remained so up to the middle of November, when a fall occurred of another 5 per cent, again remaining stationary till the end of December. Although some slight improvement took place at the new year, the wools subsequently offered fell off in quality, being much deteriorated by burr and seed, and towards the close of the season the market fell proportionately.

It is urged that greater attention should be devoted to breeding crossbreeds on stations possessing the three advantageous points needed for doing so with success, namely, a plentiful supply of water, good land, and not too great a distance from a shipping port. Crossbred sheep in such localities realize nearly double the meat price of the Merino and the half or three-quarter bred Merino. Lincoln lambs attain maturity at one-half the age of the pure Merino, the wool of the fine to medium class and of like grade fetching from 1*d* to ½*d* more than Merinos of the same condition.

The Lincoln ram with the Merino ewe is generally admitted to be the best cross. At 2 years old the wethers will weigh 55 to 75 pounds per carcass, with 6 to 8 pounds of wool if full fleeced. Cotswold on Merino is another excellent cross, being large-framed, hardy sheep, the 2-year old wethers weighing 50 to 65 pounds, with a 6 to 8 pounds fleece. Long-wooled rams should be used if more mutton is required, but if the aim is to increase the wool Merino sires should be sought, bearing in mind that a pure-blooded, not a crossbred, sire must be used, the latter course invariably leading to deterioration, however strongly he may

inherit parental qualities. The female, it must be borne in mind, exercises the greater influence over the form, whilst the strongest impress on the wool is given by the male.

Large quantities of inferior class wools offered during the months of January, February, and March reduced the price, which had stood at a firm average of £10 per bale during the first part of the season, to an average of £9 15*s.*, the lowest ever hitherto on the record. The difference between the gross product of the clip of the past three seasons is shown thus:

Total output of Australasia.

Year.	Quantity.	Value of bale.		Gross value.
	Bales.	£	*s.*	
1889-'90	1,460,000	14	15	£21,535,000
1890-'91	1,500,000	11	5	16,875,000
1891-'92	1,650,000	9	15	16,087,500

One formerly considerable buyer was, so to speak, out of last season's market, for Germany had lost her best customer owing to the duties on woolens in the States, which took effect on January 1, 1891, and was, furthermore, unsettled by labor outbreaks and bank failures; nor is the consumption of wool in Germany likely to assume its former status in the near future. English buyers, as usual, were the chief purchasers of scoured and fleece-washed kinds, whereas the French extended their operations to all descriptions of wool—greasy, scoured, Merino, and crossbred—showing a predilection, however, for the bright wools of the Riverina, the upper Murrumbidgee, and the southwest districts, and the deep soft Merinos of the Namoi and Liverpool plains. Indeed, the woolen factories of this country (France) appear to be omnivorous from a woolen point of view, and France is thrown prominently into relief by contrast with the comparative stagnation of Russia, Germany, Belgium, and, partially, Great Britain. A small demand from the East for India and Japan comes yearly, but is gradually and steadily increasing. From the United States the majority of New South Wales and Queensland wools derive considerable assistance for certain classes, this consumption being confined almost exclusively to light high-class greasy descriptions of little shrinkage, without burr or faults and well skirted. Of course the woolgrowers of Australia watch keenly the action of the Senate respecting the bill, prepared by the chairman of committee, favoring the removal of the duties on this staple, as their sole hope of an increased American demand is founded on the success of this measure. Late news of increased carbonizing plants being added to American mills leads to the supposition that these buyers will in the near future be able to purchase to advantage some lower-grade wools than they have hitherto touched.

So far as I can gather, there appears to be a general conviction that the coming clip will at least equal in bulk those which have preceded it, but, having been grown in certain districts under less favorable cir-

cumstances, it is hardly probable to come up to the clip of 1891 and 1892 in point of condition. Portions of the clip of 1892–'93 must suffer not only in character and value, but also in quality, from losses by drought, boiling-down operations, and loss in lambing during the present year. Nor is there any indication of a diminution in the customary increase of South American wool, so that, if overproduction lowered the prices of last season, the same state of things exists to influence the colonial sales announced to open on or about September 29, next. With an improved condition of affairs in Europe, strikes and labor troubles are less likely to be prevalent, and once financial affairs placed on a better footing we may hope to see trade develop and the wool market placed on a more satisfactory plane for the grower.

The same restless spirit which sent so many of our forefathers further and further west, pioneers of Anglo-Saxon civilization, permeates their brethren in these colonies, but the names of those intrepid explorers of this wide continent have already been so ably inscribed on the role of Australian heroes as to need no mention here. Following in their footsteps came the squatter, taking up large tracts of land suitable for cattle and sheep and struggling against all the difficulties and dangers of the early days, eventually attained the ease of a patriarchal life, or succumbed to droughts, diseases, and prosaic overdrafts, etc. There is but little of the romance (if it may be so called) attending former squatter's life left now however; all is dry matter-of-fact routine and, for want of being "stuck up" by bushrangers or attacked by natives, the pastoralist has to fight the rabbit and the grasshopper. It was in 1778 that Capt. MacArthur discovered that the cattle which had wandered away from Sydney and become almost wild, had initiated "free selection," appropriating to their own use about 5,000 acres near the Nepean, some 30 miles to the southwest. Now cattle number 2,046,347 head. In 1795, the same gentleman owned a flock of about 1,000 sheep of English, Irish, Bengal, and Cape breeds, which he was careful to improve by importing Spanish rams and ewes, having more eye to strain than to immediate profit. Now in New South Wales there are 5,358 owners of from 1 to 500 sheep, dividing among them 1,037,879; 2,248 own 1,756,872 sheep, in numbers ranging from 501 to 1,000; from 1,001 to 2,000, there are 1,954 owners of 2,979,168 sheep; 1,696 owners hold 5,493,942 in lots of from 2,001 to 5,000, and 686 are possessors of 4,943,221 sheep in flocks of 5,001 to 10,000; 7,056,580 sheep are divided among 495 owners in lots of from 10,001 to 20,000, and in droves of 20,001 to 50,000; 491 owners hold 15,553,774 sheep, 186 are proprietors of 12,617,206 in flocks ranging from 50,001 to 100,000, and only 73 squatters have more than 100,001 for a total of 10,392,774; in all, 61,831,416.

The average size of flocks in each colony or of each breed can not be struck. In the latter case flocks are generally suited to the size of the paddock, so little shepherding being done nowadays, and in the former

all depends on; (1) The nature of the country and average rainfall; (2) the size of the holding; (3) the size of the paddock; (4) the owner's means for subdividing: (5) the provision on his land for water; (6) the class of sheep, being assimilated to that character of country on which they will gain the largest return per annum.

On looking over the following statement of the total number of sheep in each colony it will be seen that New South Wales takes precedence as a sheep breeder; but, whilst Victoria has reached the limit of her capabilities in this line and has, from her larger proportion of population to the area and greater general rainfall, devoted much of her attention to agriculture, New South Wales has many resources yet untouched for fostering the ovine race. Northern Queensland and the northern territory of South Australia are naturally better adapted for horse and cattle breeding, not only on account of their distance to port or market, but also from the rank, gross nature of the grass, and the southern portions of the latter are, for the most part, given up to cereal raising. Much of West Australia is still terra incognita, so that any speculation as to its capabilities for a sheep-carrying country would not be founded on a solid basis.

Colonies.	Sheep.	Proportion of each colony to total, Australasia.
		Per cent.
New South Wales	61, 831, 416	51. 5
Victoria	12, 736, 143	10. 6
Queensland	18, 007, 234	15. 1
South Australia	7, 004, 642	5. 8
West Australia	2, 524, 913	2. 2
Tasmania	1, 619, 356	1. 3
New Zealand	16, 200, 358	513. 5
Total	119, 924, 062	100. 0

Sheep are generally marked either by fire brands or tar brands, and ear marks are also used. During 1891 286 of the first kind, 1,685 of the second, and 1,017 of the third were recorded and are considered as "prima facie" evidence of ownership. As comparatively speaking only a small number of brands and marks are available for sheep, a good brand, totally dissimilar to all others in the colony, has not hitherto been given to each sheep-owner, identical brands being registered in different districts. It often happens that sheep stealers get off because of the great difficulty experienced in proving the ownership of the sheep, due to the resemblance of the brands. The inspector of stock is now engaged in remedying this evil, and he expects shortly to complete his task of giving each sheep-owner a distinctive and separate brand. Tattoo-marking, a great preventive of sheep-stealing, is in general use among owners of stud sheep only. Ear marking is properly carried out, and is in use in every district.

It is by no means an easy matter, even for the most experienced

hands, to fix anything but an approximate value on store sheep, as it depends on so many contingencies, but it may be said that wethers with the wool on, just previous to shearing, usually fetch 8*s.*; at present they can be bought for 6*s.*; breeding ewes in lamb and in wool, 8*s.* to 13*s.*; mixed weaners, 12 months old, 7 to 10*s.* Six to 8-tooth wethers are those preferred for sending to market, whilst a 2-toothed ewe is the best suited for breeding, as she has all her lambing before her.

The following table shows the estimated values of the various breeds of long-wooled sheep for crossing with Merinos and the weight of carcasses when dressed:

Breed.	At 6 months.			At 12 months.			At 24 months.			At 36 months.		
	Weight.	Value per pound in London.	Amount.	Weight.	Value per pound in London.	Amount.	Weight.	Value per pound in London.	Amount.	Weight at thirty-six months.	Value per pound in London.	Amount.
	Lbs.	*d.*	*s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*d.*	£ *s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*d.*	£ *s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*d.*	£ *s. d.*
Carcasses of wethers:												
Lincoln and Merino.	37	5½	15 11	55⅜	4½	1 0 1	66⅜	4½	1 4 0⅝	74½	4	1 4 9½
Leicester and Merino	33⅜	5¼	14 9½	50	4½	18 0⅜	59½	4¼	1 1 0	65	4½	1 3 5½
Border and Merino..	35⅝	5¼	15 8	51¾	4½	18 7⅝	61½	4¼	1 2 1⅞	68½	4½	1 3 8⅝
Romney and Merino.	34	5¼	14 7¾	53⅜	4¼	19 0	64	4½	1 3 1½	71⅝	4¼	1 5 1½
Cotswold and Merino	30	4¾	11 10½	48	4	16 0	60	4¼	1 1 3	70	4	1 3 4
Shropshire and Merino	29	5½	12 4½	45	4	15 0	54	4¼	0 19 1½	59	4¼	1 0 10¾
Hampshire and Merino	37½	5¼	16 4⅞	55	4¼	19 5¾	65	4½	1 3 8⅜	70	4½	1 4 0¾
Southdown and Merino	31½	5½	14 5¼	51½	4¼	18 2⅞	64½	4¼	1 2 10½	70½	4	1 3 6
Carcasses of ewes:												
Lincoln and Merino .	37	5½	15 11	55⅜	4½	1 0 1	63½	4½	1 2 10⅜	70	4½	1 4 3⅜
Leicester and Merino	33⅜	5¼	14 6¾	50	4¼	18 0⅜	57⅜	4¼	1 0 9⅜	60⅜	4¼	1 1 10⅜
Border and Merino..	35⅝	5¼	15 8	51½	4¼	18 6⅞	60	4¼	1 1 8	63⅞	4¼	1 2 10⅞
Romney and Merino.	34	5¼	14 7¾	53⅜	4¼	18 10⅞	62	4¼	1 2 4⅜	66⅜	4⁰	1 3 7¼
Cotswold and Merino	30	4¾	11 10½	48	4	16 0	56	4¼	19 0	65	4	1 1 8¾
Shropshire and Merino	29	5	12 1	44	4	14 8	5½	1¼	8 18 2⅞	56½	4¼	1 0 0½
Hampshire and Merino	37½	5¼	16 4⅞	55	4¼	19 5¾	61	4½	1 2 2⅞	66½	4½	1 2 10 1/16
Southdown and Merino	31½	5½	14 5¼	51½	4¼	18 2⅞	62½	4¼	1 2 1⅝	69½	4	1 3 2
Fleece of wethers:												
Lincoln and Merino.	3¼	9	2 5¼	8⅜	10½	7 5⅜	8	10½	6 10⅜	8	10½	6 10⅜
Leicester and Merino.	3	9	2 3	7 7/12	10½	6 6⅞	7¼	10½	6 2 11/12	7	10½	6 0⅞
Border and Merino..	3	9	2 3	8	10½	6 10⅜	7½	10½	6 5⅛	7½	10½	6 5⅛
Romney and Merino	3	9	2 3	7 7/12	10½	6 5	7	10	5 10	7	10	5 10
Cotswold and Merino.	3	9	2 3	7½	9½	5 11¼	7	9	5 3	7	9	5 3
Shropshire and Merino.	3	8½	2 1½	6¼	8¼	4 3½	5¾	8¼	3 11 7/16	5¾	8¼	3 11 7/16
Hampshire and Merino.	2¾	7¾	1 9¼	7	9	5 3	6½	9	4 10½	6½	9	4 10½
Southdown and Merino.	2¼	8¼	1 6½	6½	8¾	4 8⅝	6¼	8¾	4 6 11/16	6¼	8¾	4 6 11/16
Fleece of ewes:												
Lincoln and Merino.	3¼	9	2 5¼	8⅜	10½	6 5⅜	7⅝	10½	6 9	7½	10½	6 5½
Leicester and Merino.	3	9	2 3	7 7/12	10½	7 6⅞	7¼	10½	6 2 11/12	7	10½	6 0⅞
Border and Merino..	3	9	2 3	7⅝	10½	6 9	7	10½	6 3⅞	7½	10½	6 3⅞
Romney and Merino	3	9	2 3	7 7/12	10½	6 5	7	10	5 10	6½	10	5 8½
Cotswold and Merino.	3	9	2 3	7½	9½	5 11¼	7	9	5 3	7	9	5 3
Shropshire and Merino.	3	8½	2 1½	6¼	8½	4 2¾	5¾	8¼	3 11 5/16	5¾	8¼	3 9⅜
Hampshire and Merino.	2¾	7¾	1 9¼	7	8⅞	5 2½	6½	9	4 10½	6½	9	4 10½
Southdown and Merino.	2¼	8¼	1 6½	6½	8¾	4 8⅝	6	8¾	4 4½	6	8¾	4 4½

I may add that, in Merino sheep, the fleece increases in weight and density, if not checked by drought, until the animal attains 4 years, after which it diminishes with advancing age.

It is somewhat curious to compare the reports of the year 1801 with those of to-day, and to note that, at that date, the heaviest fleece that had been shorn was only 3½ pounds, and that the fleece of one of the sheep imported from the Cape was then valued at 4*s.* 6*d.* per pound, whilst that of the same kind, bred in New South Wales, was estimated at 6*s.* per pound. As an instance of the rapid improvement which attended Capt. MacArthur's crossing of breeds, he mentions the fleece of one of his coarse-wooled ewes as being valued at 9*d.* per pound, whilst that of her lamb, begotten by a Spanish Ram, was allowed to be worth 3*s.* per pound.

At public auctions held lately pure Saxony Merino rams realized 50 guineas each, with the exception of one at 70, whilst a famous pure-bred Merino ram, a prize-winner and sire of many prize descendants, fetched 630 guineas. Ewes went at from 4 to 65 guineas, the average for 103 rams being £24 5*s.* 5*d.* and for 19 ewes £7 4*s.* 9*d.* Seventeen imported German Merino stud rams failed to find bidders even, and of the 55 American Merino sheep offered only 4 were sold at 51, 50, 35, and 28 guineas, respectively. The dullness of the market is attributed to the scarcity of money and to a disposition on the part of pastoralists "to bide a wee." It is pretty evident, however, that, whilst acknowledging that new blood is absolutely requisite to keep up the strain, pastoralists prefer seeking it amongst the flocks of reputable colonial breeders, thoroughly acclimatized and the strains of which are well known. They therefore but rarely recruit from imported stock. The pure Merino type is kept pure and crossed with all kinds of coarse home sheep, such as Lincoln, etc., not with the view of improving the wool, but for the carcass, or because the sheep are wanted for cold or wet districts where they do better than pure Merinos.

In the city of Sydney slaughtering yards are under the control of the town council, who also have large sale yards at Flemington, 9 miles out of town. Wethers, when they have attained 3 to 4 years, are put into fattening paddocks, *i. e.*, unimproved lands rich in natural grasses, and fattened for killing, and to a growing extent for freezing for export, the carcass, dressed, averaging some 50 pounds in weight and from 9*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* in price, with 7*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* for ewes of 35 pounds, although the latter are mostly kept for breeding.

Slaughtered during 1890.

Description.	Metropolis.	Country.	Total.
Sheep	771, 693	1, 242, 362	2, 014, 055
Lambs	27, 320	44, 567	71, 887

The buildings required on a station are: A homestead, which may be a very modest dwelling or a very sumptuous mansion, "replete with every modern comfort and luxury" (to quote auctioneers' advertisements), coach house, stabling, sheds, woolshed, and, very often, bachelors' quarters, the latter being generally the fate awaiting the original humble shelter when good years enable the squatter to build a better class of dwelling. The wool shed is the squatter's chief care, as much as £1,000 being expended on some, while its humbler namesake may not have cost a £10 note.

The following is a comparative statement showing, very approximately only, the first outlay for and cost of maintenance of a station carrying 20,000 sheep, exclusive of run, forty years ago and at present:

First outlay, 1852.

20,000 sheep, at 6*s.* each	£6,000
36 working bullocks, at £7	252
3 drays, at £23	69
8 horses, at £14	112
Expenses for head station, huts, wool sheds, barn, paddocks, hurdles	1,500
Total	7,933

Maintenance of 20,000 sheep, 1852.

	£	s.	d.
Manager	100	0	0
Overseer	35	0	0
Cook	23	0	0
Storekeeper	25	0	0
Farm servant	20	0	0
3 bullock drivers and mate	120	0	0
20 shepherds and watchman	400	0	0
Rations for 30, at £12	360	0	0
Wear and tear of 3 drays	23	0	0
Loss of bullocks	70	0	0
License and assessment	93	6	8
Washing, 10 men, at 5*s.* per day, 24 days	60	0	0
Shearing 20,000 sheep	150	0	0
Pressing, 3 men, at 5*s.* per day, 24 days	18	0	0
150 wool bags, at 8*s.* each	60	0	0
4 dozen shears, at 3*s*	7	4	0
200 hurdles annually, at £7 per 100	14	0	0
Repairs	50	0	0
Lambing time, 6 men, at 12*s.* per week, 8 weeks	28	16	0
2 per cent for losses on flocks	120	0	0
Commission on wool, £3,000	150	0	0
150 bales, station to Sydney, at 10*s.* each	75	0	0
Traveling expenses, etc	200	0	0
Freight home of 40,000 pounds wool, at 1¼*d*	208	6	8
Interest on £7,933, at 8 per cent	634	12	9
Total	3,045	6	1

Say £152 5*s.* 4*d.* paid in 1852, whilst in 1892 it is estimated at £190 7*s.* per 1,000 sheep, as shown below:

First outlay, 1892.

10,000 wethers and weaners. at 5*s*	£2,500
8,000 breeding ewes, at 10*s*	4,000
200 rams, at 42*s*	420
10 stud rams, at £15 15*s*	157
500 stud ewes, at 42*s*	1,050
1,290 mixed sheep, including those for rations, at 5*s*	322
12 working bullocks, at £10	120
Wagon and tackling	70
12 saddle horses, at £7	84
Cost of erecting wool shed, varying according to distance from timber and railway, with slight sheep and wool storage, shearing machines extra	800
Homestead and garden, cheap	100
Barn and hay shed	20
Huts, shearers', men's, etc., cheap	100
10 paddocks for sheep, horse paddock, and wool-shed paddock, 40 miles, at £50	2,000
Small stockyard	50
Drafting yards, including gates (hurdles not required)	70
Total	12,013

Maintenance of above.

	£	s.	d.
Manager (his own overseer; books kept at business office in city from his monthly returns)	200	0	0
Married couple (man as cook, wife as laundress and housemaid)	90	0	0
Storeman (generally useful, milk, butcher, etc.)	65	0	0
Bullock driver	65	0	0
Boundary riders (varying according to whether country hilly or plain; two married men, finding themselves)	140	0	0
1 generally useful hand, as postman, etc	52	0	0
Rations for above (boundary riders excepted), say at 8*s.* per head per week	124	16	0
Shoeing, wear and tear of drays	20	0	0
4 men, finding own saddles and bridles, at 40*s.* per year	8	0	0
License and assessment, 20,000 acres, at 1*s*	1,000	0	0
Assessment under diseases in stock act	22	0	0
Shearing 20,000 sheep, at 20*s.* per 100	200	0	0
Pressing 300 bales, at 1*s.* 6*d*	22	10	0
Woolpacks for bales, at 2*s*	30	0	0
Gates	5	0	0
Freight to Sidney—say 50 tons, at £3	150	0	0
Traveling expenses	20	0	0
Freight to England—say 112,000 pounds, greasy, at 5*s.* 8*d*	291	13	0
Primage, say	15	0	0
Shipping charges, at 1*s.* 6*d.* per bale	22	10	0
Insurance charges, at 3*s.* per bale	45	0	0
Entries, stamps, sale expenses, dock charges, fire insurance, commission, and brokerage—say 12*s.* per bale	180	0	0
Cartage of wool, shed to rail, 50 tons, at 10*s*	25	0	0
Salt for sheep and freight on same, say	80	0	0

	£	s.	d.
Wool-sorter, £1 per 1,000	20	0	0
Shearing for five weeks, say 3 wool rollers, at 25s. each per week	18	15	0
1 piece picker, at 20s. per week	5	0	0
3 boys, at 20s. per week each	15	0	0
1 yarder, at 25s. per week	6	5	0
1 cook, at 30s. per week	7	15	0
Rations, 8s. per head per week (including wool-sorters)	20	0	0
Interest on first outlay, £12,013, at 7 per cent	340	18	2
Total	3,807	2	2

In connection with the above, it must be borne in mind that only an indefinite and approximate estimate of the cost of working a station can be given, as in some parts of the colonies this is double, even treble, what it is in others, having regard to the nature of the country, the season, and the ways of the manager. However, the foregoing figures have been kindly furnished me by a pastoralist of over thirty years' experience and are as correct as the indefinite nature of the queries will allow. The hypotheses on which these calculations are started is that 20,000 acres of land are rented at 1s. per acre, capable of carrying 20,000 sheep, a certain quantity of those which can be disposed of advantageously being annually sold off to make room for the lambing increase. It will be seen that no charge is noted for tanks or wells, which might cost from £500 to £5,000; nor is any account taken of shepherding (now nearly extinct, as I have before stated), nor of sheep-washing, which is practically a thing of the past, as almost everyone, except in the western districts of Victoria, shears in the grease. A certain allowance should be made for plant and furniture, to include a pair of buggy horses, and a draft horse and dray, say roughly £300. It is usually considered that 35s. per 100 sheep is a fair "in globo" estimate of cost of shearing and getting wool ready for cartage. Nor must it be overlooked that the cost of working a small place of 20,000 sheep is comparatively much larger than where a much larger one is operated on.

Excepting on stations in the far interior, where aboriginals are necessarily used, the labor employed is that of the Anglo-Saxon race and the usual staff consists of a manager, an overseer, a store and book keeper, and, according to requirements, boundary riders, bullock and horse drivers, shearers, and shed hands, dam-sinking and fencing being usually done by contract.

In this country the number of acres requisite for feeding 1 sheep is a question of very wide range. Taking the average of ordinary seasons in some parts, on natural grasses, 1½ to 3 acres support 1 sheep; on lucerne, 8, 10, and even 12 can pasture on 1 acre. In poor districts, or where there is little rainfall, 8 to 10 acres will only just carry 1 sheep, whilst in good 1 acre suffices for 2 sheep.

The almost universally adopted system of paddocking now in vogue offers the following advantages over the old shepherding plan. The

country carries one-third more sheep; the wool will be longer and sounder; the fleece will be better; the feed will be cleaner, and there is less liability to grass seed, according to management; the lambing will average better; the sheep will grow larger and be less liable to foot-root and other diseases; the working expenses will be very much less.

The owner, being released from the worry of having to look after and find rations for a number of shepherds and hut-keepers, can attend to the improvement of his sheep. For example, only about 2,000 sheep are generally intrusted to one shepherd, whereas one boundary rider can care for about 25,000 when paddocked, say in four separate paddocks, besides repairing the fences. These usually average about 5 by 4 miles, but some owners pin their faith to less acreage, alleging that the smaller size carries more sheep. This, in districts with natural facilities for water and a fair average rainfall, has been clearly demonstrated, though the larger paddocks are necessitated in the more western districts less blessed with regular rains.

The amount of fencing required must depend entirely upon the size of the station, as there must be an outside or boundary fence round the run; then there is the fencing required for the head-station paddock for horses and cattle, say a mile and a half square, a small stud sheep paddock, and larger paddocks may be fenced in, as the management of the station may require. It is estimated that there are 1,689,549 miles of fencing throughout the colony, costing £41 16*s*. per mile, making a total of £70,623,148.

A question of vital importance in connection with sheep-breeding is that of salt supply. Practical experience has proved that on pastures where salinous plants exist in abundance stock keep in far better health than when this class of forage is wanting, and that fluke and other distoma diseases are unknown among sheep feeding on lands so advantaged by nature. When salt is given about 1 ton to 1,000 sheep per annum is the usual calculation, but in the worst country more is used. Some idea of the consumption of salt in this colony may be formed by reference to the import statistics of last year, which show Liverpool salt, 19,236 tons; rock salt, 5,706 tons; total, 24,942 tons. Of this, 4,430 tons came from South Australia, known as lake salt, only fit for sheep, but not for butchers' or domestic purposes; one-half of the balance, it may be said, came from England, and one-half from Germany; and it is probable that next year one-third of the Liverpool and two-thirds of the rock will be the proportions, as the German article has a reddish tint which leads to the belief that it contains iron. Liverpool is preferred to rock because the sheep get the benefit of the tonic, and it can be more easily mixed with sulphate of iron and sulphur. Rock salt is usually placed so that sheep herded in a paddock have free access to it, but coarse Liverpool or South Australian salt is given at regular intervals in troughs.

In 23 districts of New South Wales lambing takes place in the autumn, in 5 in the winter and in 11 in the spring; in 5 sheep lamb in autumn or spring, in 2 in winter or spring, and in 6 in autumn or winter. None of that care and attention is paid to the mothers which the rigors of our own and of European climates render absolutely necessary; they lamb at their own sweet will and are pretty generally left to take care of themselves, the average health being better if they are left to seek shelter when they require it, instead of being confined in uncleanly yards, often the source of disease. Special attention should, nevertheless, be devoted to avoid unmothering lambs at marking, as they are too young to do without their mothers and would perish, and, if such cases occur, these lambs, and all others suffering from any sickness, should be drafted and special attention paid to them. Good authorities maintain that breeding from two-tooth ewes produces weakly lambs. It is excessively difficult to say with any degree of accuracy what is the percentage of loss in ewes and lambs at this time, but I am told that it may be reasonably put down at 5 to 10 per cent, exclusive of the loss experienced from dry ewes. During the great droughts of 1883–'84, the loss was estimated at 12,000,000 and in 1888 at 6,000,000, taking into consideration not only actual deaths, but also the loss of increase. No blow to sheep-owners in any way approximating these figures had been dealt for forty previous years, nor were the recuperative powers of sheep ever more heavily taxed. When these terribly trying times occur, the only natural resource available for sheep-owners is to send their flocks to the mountains when practicable. Again, trees, scrub, etc., can be cut down as forage, or the sheep can be let loose in the scrub, where they can generally pick up a precarious existence, provided water is procurable. The damage to both sheep and wool resulting from these terrible scourges may be summarized as follows:

(1) Loss of sheep by death; (2) loss of increase; (3) loss of condition; (4) loss by breaks in the wool resulting from starvation; (5) loss by deterioration in quality of the wool through the accumulation of dust in the fleece. This is more especially the case in the western districts, where in some parts heavy dust storms are of frequent occurrence during the summer months and times of drought.

Breaks in wool also frequently occur on sudden changes of climate, but these are of such rare occurrence that this risk need not enter into the list of those to which the sheep-owner is ordinarily exposed.

Native dogs (dingoes) are credited with the destruction of 85,408 sheep and lambs during the past year, valued at £28,189, and tame dogs with that of 45,824, representing £16,118—say a total value of £44,307. Eagle hawks kill the weak progeny of careless mothers, and heavy rains and floods prove fatal to many more. The average of last lambing of paddocked sheep was 69 and of shepherded 63 per cent, and was rated as "high" in 20 districts, varied from "medium to

fair" in 31, and as "low to very low" in the remaining 12. The high rate of percentage is attributed to the favorable season, the good condition of the ewes, and to the runs not being overstocked, whilst the lower is due to the prevalence of wet, cold weather during lambing time, to the poorness of the ewes, scarcity of feed and water, to the destruction of the pastures by grasshoppers, etc., and to the other enemies of the lamb already noticed. Yet, in spite of all these drawbacks, Mr. Bruce, chief inspector of stock, states that to-day New South Wales has a surplus of two millions of sheep, with an overloaded market for fats, low prices ruling for A1 sheep, and store and breeding kinds only realizing ruinously low prices on long credits. The remedy for this state of things, as is of course self-apparent, is to be found in augmenting the export trade with the mother country and with such governments as use tinned meats for their soldiers, sailors, etc.

FROZEN AND PREPARED MEATS FOR EXPORT.

At present there are three ways of preparing mutton for export—boiling down, tinning, and freezing—and I propose to give a few figures relative to the cost of each process as detailed by Mr. Bruce.

Boiling down a prime fat Merino wether, weighing 52 pounds, worth 7*s.* 6*d.*, results in 24 pounds of tallow, 5*s.* 6*d.*; tongue, skin, bones, etc., 1*s.*; wool (four months), 1*s.* 4*d.*; total, 7*s.* 10*d.*, against wages, 9*d.*; cask, 6½*d.*; maintenance of plant, 1½*d.*; freight to London, insurance, commission, etc., 1*s.* 4½*d.*; total, 2*s.* 9¼*d.*, leaving net 5*s.* ½*d.*, or a loss of 2*s.* 5½*d.* on its worth at the market, besides cost of carriage from pastures. An ewe of the same breed and weight would give 2 pounds more tallow (or 5½*d.*) over that of the wether, but 4*d.* less in wool, say 1½*d.* to the credit of the former and a shilling besides for lower market price; therefore the loss on the ewe would be 1*s.* 4½*d.* as compared with 2*s.* 5½*d.* on the wether. The foregoing demonstrates that boiling down prime sheep results in a considerably less return to the owner than putting them on the market even at the actual low prices now ruling, the conclusion being that recourse should be had to boiling down only with sheep fit neither for the colonial market, nor for tinning or freezing, but which must be sacrificed, and that the operation should be carried on in the closest possible proximity to the station, thus avoiding droving or railing carriage on the animal, whilst the second is available for the proceeds.

The class of sheep which is just now most numerous here is the "middling to good" fat, and it is from the surplus of this class that tinning demands would be supplied. Again taking a 52-pound wether as the basis of observation, worth 7*s.* 6*d.* on the market, the net price realized by tinning would be 7*s.* 8½*d.*, or a gain of 2½*d.* against a loss of 2*s.* 5½*d.* by boiling down, or a total of 2*s.* 8*d.* to the credit of the first-named process.

The details are as follows: Tinned meat, 16 pounds at 4*d.* in London, 5*s.* 4*d.*; tallow, 22½ pounds at 2¾*d.*, 5*s.* 2*d.*; tongue, soups, skin, etc., 1*s.* 6*d.*; wool, 1*s.* 4*d.*; bones, etc., 1*d.*; total, 13*s.* 5*d.* against tins, 1*s.* 4*d.*; cask, 6*d.*; wages, 1*s.* 3*d.*; maintenance of plant, 2½*d.*; carriage, insurance, damaged meat, loss of weight in tallow, commission, charges, etc., 2*s.* 5*d.*; total, 5*s.* 8½*d.* With the ewes, same weight, worth 6*s.* 6*d.*, the net return would show 7*s.* ½*d.*, by tinning, which leaves 6½*d.* to the good, so that, with the addition of the loss by boiling, 1*s.* 4½*d.*, tinning has 1*s.* 11*d.* in its favor. It should be noticed that tinning gives as much tallow, within a pound, as boiling down, whilst 10 to 12 pounds of good mutton, worth say 3*s.* 6*d.*, can be saved at a cost of 2*d.* per pound. But tinned meat is not a favorite with the general public, and to meet their requirements it is proposed to subsidize the companies formed for freezing meat for export. The reasons assigned for the payment of this subsidy are that large stocks must always be kept on hand to meet sudden, unexpected calls, which means large capital and extensive outlay, for the operation is costly; besides which provision must be made for occasions when bad seasons, floods, droughts, etc., may entail suspension of the works. The expenses attending the placing on the London market of a 52-pound 3-year old wether are estimated at 8*s.* 8*d.*, and the receipts, say 52 pounds at 3½*d.* 14*s.* 1*d.*; skin, 1*s.* 9*d.*; tallow, etc., 1*s.* 8*d.*; total 17*s.* 6*d.*, a net return of 8*s.* 10*d.* Thus we have a 52-pound wether giving 5*s.* ½*d.* by boiling down, 7*s.* 8½*d.* by tinning, and 8*s.* 10*d.* by freezing. Further commentary on the relative merits of the three processes is needless. To carry out the last, the freezing for export process, to the desired extent £100,000 would, it is estimated, be required, and the fat-stock trade would then assume perfectly satisfactory porportions.

Although better liked on the London market than that of the River-plate, Australian mutton is not so well appreciated as that of New Zealand, a country which possesses advantages which are not shared by this colony. There the sheep are nearly all cross-bred and better suited to the London market than the Merinos of New South Wales. There is less uncertainty about the seasons, and the journey to be traveled by the sheep is short compared with the long distances which separate the pastures of this colony from the port of shipment. Those interested in the trade with New South Wales are urging on exporters the advisability of increasing the growth of good mutton sheep, together with the production of cross-bred wool, so as to place the mutton of the colony on a par with that of New Zealand, for cross-bred mutton commands 1*d.* per pound more than Merino in London. The following figures show to what an important point this industry has grown here as compared with other competing countries:

Fresh mutton imported into England.

From—	1890.	1891.
	Tons.	*Tons.*
Australia	44,857	53,172
Argentina	21,754	21,817
Europe, etc	16,209	8,160
Total	82,820	83,149
Valued at	£3,447,000	£3,282,000

Three million three hundred and twenty-five thousand carcasses of frozen mutton formed the total import of 1891, being 375,000 more than during the previous year, of which New Zealand leads the van with 1,900,000, followed by 1,071,000 from La Plata, 335,000 from Australia, and 19,000 from the Falkland Islands. Of the total exported from Australia, New South Wales was represented by 525½ tons, valued at £101,828. Although the total value exported in 1891 is less than that of 1890, Australia has enlarged her contribution by 20 per cent, whilst that of La Plata remains the same and European supplies have fallen off almost exactly 50 per cent. In 1889 the quantity sent from these colonies was 30,628 tons, as against 19,748 from La Plata, where the drought and political disturbances have doubtless contributed to hinder the development of this trade.

Australasia undoubtedly holds a strong position as regards the frozen-carcass trade, and this advantage is enhanced by the fact that the importation of live sheep into Great Britain has fallen off some 50 per cent—say from 678,000 in 1888 to 344,500 in 1891. Some doubts are entertained as to whether New Zealand, in view of the present condition of sheep farming there and other side influences, will be able to maintain its exports at their present figures and continue to dominate the supplies.

Fresh beef in 1889 was supplied to the London market to the value of £3,923,000 for 92,729 tons, and 96,025 tons, valued at £4,038,000 in 1891, the United States controlling the market, as it has done that of live cattle, and furnishing 84,657 and 87,378 tons, respectively. The trade in foreign live cattle fell from 583,800 in 1890, to 465,800 in 1891, a difference of 120,000 head, which was brought about by the heavy losses entailed by an ill-advised attempt to do away with competition. Some difficulty appears to exist at present in this, as in the wool trade at certain times of the year, regarding the distribution of the large supplies of beef and mutton, both chilled and frozen. Hitherto, the greater share of colonial imports has gone to London, whilst those of the river Plate go mostly to Liverpool, both of which centers are often overstocked, leading to a reduction in prices by no means pleasing to settlers. It has been suggested that old hulks might be fitted with refrigerating chambers, where carcasses might be stored until sold at some of the

principal coast ports, such as Glasgow, Plymouth, Southampton, Newcastle, Dundee, Leith, etc.

For some time past the carriage of fresh meat by rail has been carried on, but the distance from the meat works to Sydney being only 28 miles it was effected at night without chilling and only placed in cool rooms on arrival if required for export or to be held over for a day to suit local demands. This trade has assumed somewhat considerable proportions, as much as 1,403 carcasses of beef and 34,898 of mutton, in all, 1,319 tons, having been forwarded in one month to Sydney. During the past year only has the carriage of carcasses by rail been carried out to any great extent by the two companies mentioned further on, and so successfully that it may confidently be expected to rank in the near future as one of the most important items both as regards export and as a means of furnishing the local market with better conditioned and, consequently, healthier meat.

The Government railways have now 22 refrigerating cars, each 32 feet in length, carrying 32 beef or 480 mutton carcasses, and are perfectly self-contained. To keep the meat in a chilled state a small quantity of ice is sufficient for the rail journey of 483 miles from Tenterfield to Sydney. Supposing these vans to be 18 feet, present length of the cattle and sheep vans now in use, which carry 9 to 10 fat cattle or 90 fat sheep, they would take, under the fresh-meat system, twice that number of beef and three times the quantity of mutton carcasses (say 18 of the former or 270 of the latter), an advantage which speaks for itself irrespective of the collateral issues involved, and calls for a change from the live stock to the fresh meat trade.

Two companies are now under way—one, 483 miles distant, at Tenterfield; the other, 347 miles away, at Narrandera. The former places regular supplies weekly on the Sydney market. Hitherto all operations have been confined to this catering, and there is scarcely a doubt but that, eventually, the public will awaken to the superiority of meat killed, so to say, where the stock pasture and are brought as fresh meat to Sydney, over that of beasts brought alive a long journey by rail, bruised, battered, and heated, starved in the trucks, yards, waiting paddocks, and at the abattoirs, and finally killed and at once supplied badly bled, full of animal heat; and, so treated, the meat is tough, fevered, and destitute of nutriment.

The Tenterfield works can treat 32 bullocks and 200 sheep daily, the quantity they are now turning out. The fat is treated in digesters and converted into tallow; the blood and offal are converted into portable manure, and the feet into oil. The hides are salted and the sheepskins dried and, as extra care and cleanliness are used in taking them off, they fetch top prices in Sydney. The ice used for the cars is manufactured at the works, the chill room being kept at the desired temperature by an ammonia machine cooling brine, but as yet no freezing is undertaken, although the works have proved such a suc-

that it is proposed to duplicate them. The company only aspires ll and chill a supply for the market of the metropolis, both beef mutton being of a quality such as heretofore has been only pro- ɔle at the station on which the stock was fattened. When a sur- occurs it will be placed under the new freezing process at Darling ɔor, to be there frozen for shipment to London.

ring to the floods the works at Narrandera were not completed in for the best part of the season, which was thus lost, fat cattle ; diverted to Victoria, but it is expected that operations will be ıenced very shortly. The establishment is adapted for 600 sheep 0 bullocks per day, the chill rooms being capable of cooling and ıg a larger number. For the treatment of the fat, blood, offal, , etc., there is ample provision, and the ice for the cars is manu- red at the works.

e largest undertaking, however, is the Australian Chilling and ing Works at Aberdeen, on the Great Northern Railway, 162 miles Sydney and some 87 miles beyond Newcastle. They are supplied all the latest improvements and can freeze 850 and chill 1,500 ı daily. Attention has so far been devoted to freezing sheep h the company buys) for export, and they have sent away two ıents with 30,000 carcasses in all. The vessels load at Newcastle, cial train conveying the mutton to that port, where as many as sheep have been loaded in one day.

the Government meat market, Darling Harbor, the common daily are, exclusive of calves and lambs, 60 carcasses of beef, 400 sheep, 0 pigs. This market has gradually gained for itself an excellent rep- ɔn for the superior quality of all kinds of meat sent there for sale. It ave twenty-one chill-rooms attached, four of which are ready and are ılly set apart for the storage of meat sent in for sale and for the f the butchers, having a storage capacity of 150 chilled bullocks ,000 sheep; the balance will be completed in time for use next ıer. The basement is connected with the principal railway lines ı colony, and will be devoted to freezing and storage rooms, fitted the latest approved machinery. It measures 200 by 280 by 16 ınd three sets of rails run through it. But these rooms will not ıstructed until an export freezing company is formed. With the n of killing and chilling stock near their respective stations a suc- there only remains this one measure, viz, the organization of a ·ful export association, to enable this colony to dispose of her sur- ıtock. When once these two plans work harmoniously together, eat will reach the home consumer with all its juices and flavor preserved, and when this is attained, it can not fail to command prices.

ı Fresh Food and Ice Company during a period extending from ıry 1, 1890, to December 31, 1891, not only froze 371,475 sheep, so a considerable amount of beef for export to London, and have

also expended between £30,000 and £40,000 in erecting new freezing rooms, and on a De la Vergne machine, which will afford the company a freezing power capable of dealing with 3,000 to 4,000 sheep daily.

Almost as I wrote, a large meeting of the shareholders of the New South Wales Refrigerating and Meat Export Company was held, when it was shown that 20,000 shares had been taken up in this country, that 100,000 more were ready to be subscribed in a fortnight, whilst 250,000 were to be placed on the London market. It was asserted that within a short time the trade would reach 3,000,000 carcasses per annum

Another company has also completed arrangements for the establishment of a refrigerating depot in conjunction with their warehouse at North Shore. They propose to work on coöperative principles, so that, upon any district subscribing a certain sum, it shall be employed in the establishment of the above works, capable of treating 80,000 sheep, or the equivalent in cattle, annually, besides making ice sufficient for local demand, giving the shareholders the benefit of the local chilling industry and of participation in the profits derived from the general business of the association, together with a share of the freehold land, wool-stores, and other assets. All expert supervision and labor will, as far as possible, be utilized by the company whenever a local depot may be temporarily closed. A local director will be selected by the local shareholders. Shipping and all other arrangements can be carried out to advantage by admitting country depot supplies into the general export trade. A uniform price for meat, fruit, butter, etc., in the home markets will thus be secured, and the producing power of the colony will increase. European markets will be accessible to the innermost districts of New South Wales. As is the case with wool, produce can either be sold in Sydney or shipped, under advances, to Europe. Participation in the profitable contracts of the association will be secured, as also expert supervision over all operations here and receiving, storing, and selling in England. Local industries will be developed, but it is not obligatory on shareholders to pass their consignments through the association.

SHEARING BY MACHINERY.

Shearing may be done by hand or by machinery, but the latter, in large sheds, is fast eclipsing the former system. Shearing by hand is usually paid at the rate of 17*s.* 6*d.* to 20*s.* per 100 sheep, the shearers finding their own implements, rations, and cook, whilst the station owner furnishes lodging, firewood, and water. Good hands can shear 80 to 100 sheep a day, and very superior men are occasionally found to put through 160. With Wolseley's machine 80 to 130 is considered a good day's average, or 180 to 200 small ewes or hoggetts; of American wrinkled sheep, it can only shear 80 per diem. I hear that some stud rams and ewes, imported from the United States, gave a good hand all he could do to shear two a day. Shearing should always be done in

the grease, it being no easy matter to preserve the brightness of the wool after washing, and is a yearly operation. No wool takes the dye so well as that which is scoured immediately before manufacture. In the district of Cobar and other northwesterly portions of the colony, where the climate is temperate in winter, but hot and dry in summer, some owners have adopted the course of shearing in the autumn, and so satisffed are they with the experiment that they propose adhering to this method. Shearing here commences early in July, whilst in the mountain table-lands of the Eastern Range it is not concluded until Christmas.

Accompanying this report is the shearing agreement form adopted by a conference held in Sydney, on the 7th and 8th of August of last year, between representatives of the Pastoralists' Federal Council of Australia and representatives of the Amalgamated Shearers' Union of Australasia. It is alleged, however, that this document is faulty, inasmuch as under the old system shearers brought their own shears, and much of their time was taken up in sharpening them; now the employer finds the tools, *i. e.*, the machine, with an engineer, the necessary power, and, moreover, an expert to grind the machine shears, so that the men have so much more time at their disposal that they can make 25 per cent more than hand-shearers. Owners say that the machine makes shearing come from 25*s.* to 27*s.* 6*d.* per 100 sheep, and call for such a modification of the existing agreement as will place wages under the two systems more in harmony with the changed circumstances of the case.

SHEARING AGREEMENT FOR NEW SOUTH WALES.

Adopted by a conference held in Sydney, on the 7th and 8th August, 1891, between representatives of the Pastoralists' Federal Council of Australia, and representatives of the Amalgamated Shearers' Union of Australasia, at which the following was agreed to:

That employers shall be free to employ and shearers shall be free to accept employment whether belonging to shearers' or other unions or not, without favor, molestation. or intimidation on either side.*

Agreement made this —— day of ——, 189–, between —— ——, hereinafter called the employer, of the one part, and the undersigned shearer, of the other part. The terms of this agreement are that the undersigned shearer, hereby agrees to shear with all reasonable dispatch all the sheep required of him by the employer or his agent during the present season in a good and workmanlike manner and to the satisfaction of the employer or his agent, the total number of sheep required to be shorn by the whole of the shearers employed during the shearing to be not less than —— —— thousand, nor more than —— —— thousand.

(1) The price of shearing wethers, ewes, and lambs (including ram lambs under six months old) to be at the rate of 20*s.* per hundred for all such sheep shorn; rams at the rate of 40*s.* per hundred for all rams shorn; money to be paid by check on a local bank or exchange to be added.

(2) The shearer shall be at the —— station or run ready to commence shearing on the —— day of ——, 189–, and the employer agrees to be ready to commence shearing on that date, and to keep the shearer fully supplied with sheep, unless prevented by weather or by some unforeseen cause.

*This is the definition of "freedom of contract," by the Pastoralists' Federal Council of Australia.

(3) The employer shall during the whole of the time the shearer is engaged shearing, provide him with hut accommodation, cooking and table utensils, wood, and water free of charge.

(4) The shearer shall not absent himself from work, but in case he leave before the completion of shearing, owing to sickness, accident, or other such unavoidable cause, or by the permission of the employer or his agent, he shall be paid in full for all sheep shorn by him, but shall be charged 15s. per week or such rate as the shearers agree upon, for his board and lodging, cook's remuneration included, such sum to be deducted from the amount due to him, and placed to the credit of the shearers' mess account.

(5) If the shearer be discharged, as he may be, for breach of this agreement or of the rules indorsed hereon, he shall be paid for the number of sheep shorn by him up to the time of such discharge, but he shall be charged 18s. per week for his board and lodging, cook's remuneration included, which amount shall be placed to the credit of the shearers' mess account.

(6) Once a week, on a day to be named at commencement of shearing, on demand, the employer shall pay to the shearer any sum not exceeding 50 per centum of the amount due over and above one week's earnings at the time of such demand, except in case of the shearer breaking this agreement.

(7) The employer and the shearer shall conform to the rules indorsed hereon, which rules, it is hereby agreed, shall be taken and deemed to be and form part of this agreement.

As witness the hands of the parties the day and year first before written.

Signed by the employer —— ——, in the presence of —— ——.

Signed by the shearer —— ——, in the presence of —— ——.

Rules embodied as part of agreement.

(1) The shearing shall be carried on under the direction and supervision of the employer or the person placed by him in charge of the shed.

(2) Before commencing work the shearer shall draw lots for his pen, and shall abide by the result of such drawing, the person in charge of the shed having the right to make any alteration deemed advisable.

(3) All sheep must be taken carefully from the pen to the shearing board and be shorn closely and in a fair and workmanlike manner, and to the satisfaction of the person in charge of the shed, the belly wool to be taken off first, where practicable, and laid aside.

(4) In opening the fleece at the neck and belly both blades of the shears or the machine to be kept under the wool and close to the skin so as to avoid twice cutting, and the shearer shall not be allowed to run the shears or the machine through the fleece so as to break it down the center or the back, and shall not stand on the fleece.

(5) In case the shearer turns out a sheep badly cut or insufficiently tarred, he shall at once sew and tar such cuts or wounds, in his pen, or otherwise dress or treat such sheep as directed by the person in charge of the shed, but no shearer shall be required to tar his sheep in other cases.

(6) The shearer shall not be allowed to kick or otherwise injure or ill use any sheep, and in case he seriously injure or ill use any sheep, or cut the teat of any ewe or pizzle of any wether or ram, he shall immediately report same to person in charge of the shed; and he shall pay to the employer the mess rate for the sheep so injured, and if the sheep be fit for food it shall go to the shearers' mess, the employer to have the right to refuse such payment and keep the sheep.

(7) The shearer shall not be allowed to catch any sheep from his pen while it is being filled, but shall during such filling shear from any pen or pens that may be allotted to him by the person in charge of the shed. No sheep to be caught after the signal has been given to cease work by the person in charge of the shed.

(8) The prices to be charged by the employer for rations and shearers' requisites shall not exceed cost prices, with 10 per cent and cost of carriage added.

(9) Each shearer may have free run for two horses where 5,000 sheep or more are to be shorn, but in case less than 5,000 sheep are to be shorn only one horse, but the employer accepts no responsibility for shearers' horses.

(10) No shearer shall bring, or cause to be brought any intoxicating liquor on to the station; no profane or obscene language or singing shall be allowed in the shed.

(11) The employer shall provide at least one grindstone for every ten shearers employed.

(12) Shearers shall provide their own cook, except where cooks work conjointly for shearers and the employer, in which case the cook shall be engaged mutually by the employer and the shearers, and the proportion of mess account and of cook's remuneration shall be matter of mutual agreement.

(13) In all sheds where shearing machines are used the shearer shall be provided with one comb and four cutters, free of cost, to every 1,500 sheep shorn by him, all combs and cutters used by the shearer above that number to be paid for by him at cost price. In case of stoppages through breakage or otherwise shearers shall go on shearing with the hand shears.

(14) No shearer shall he compelled to shear wet or cancered sheep.

(15) No shearer shall be compelled to work more than forty-eight hours in one week.

As before remarked, shearing by machinery is fast taking the place of hand work, and among the various machines which have been invented for this purpose, Wolseley's seems to be the first practically perfected and therefore the favorite. It is somewhat difficult to describe this machine, but the accompanying illustration gives a very fair idea of the interior of a wool shed with each shearer's pens and machine attached, the motive power being steam.*

The shears themselves somewhat resemble those used for clipping horses and consist of a comb and cutter moving backwards and forwards horizontally, connected with the rotary shaft by a flexible tube and universal joint, which enables the worker to manipulate the shears in every direction. At the Dunlop Station Shed, on the Darling River, 184,000 sheep were shorn in fourteen weeks and returned more wool than when hand shearing was used, to the value of £6,133 6*s.* 8*d.*

THE BURGON SHEEP-SHEARING MACHINE.

The following is a very complete description of this machine, with which I have been favored by Mr. J. H. Maiden, curator of the Technological Museum of this city:

The special merits are overhead safety driving motion, which is self-adjusting in its action, and can be put in and out of gear instantly, independent of others on same line of shafting; patent flexible steel driving shaft, made of special tough hardened steel, with universal joints. Will last for several seasons without requiring repairs. Can not be injured or destroyed even should it get hot. Not liable to twist, kinkle, burn, or break. By far the most durable, economical, and reliable flexible shaft in the market. Burgon's patent machine shear has few working parts, is made throughout of highest quality steel, is very strong, and will not easily get out of order. All duplicate parts are interchangeable. Combs and cutters are made from the highest quality steel, and are guaranteed to give satisfactory shearing results. Comb and

*See page 58 for an illustration of this machine.

cutter sharpener.—Burgon's new patents always retain a true grinding surface, thus insuring perfect work in sharpening comb and cutter.

Price, £11 complete (including duties.)

A complete machine consists of 5 feet 1¼ inch steel shafting, with necessary couplings (shafting made up in 15 feet lengths); 1 set overhead driving-gear, complete; 1 steel flexible driving shaft (Burgon's patent); 1 shield for shaft, 1 machine shears, 3 combs, 12 cutters, 1 oil can, 1 screw-driver, 1 scrub brush; extras, belting, emery grinder, and duplicate parts as may be considered necessary.

Terms of payment.—Three months from date of commencement of shearing, or 2½ per cent discount for prompt cash, contractors to have the right to fit up sheds at any time convenient to themselves. Competent men sent to fit up sheds at a charge of 10s. per day and traveling expenses. Payment to commence from date of departure. Experts engaged at current rates of wages.

Burgon's machine oil is specially recommended for the machines as being most suitable. No responsibility accepted if inferior gummy oil is used.

A 4-horse power engine sufficient to drive from ten to fifteen machines, 6-horse power engine sufficient to drive from ten to twenty machines, 8-horse power engine sufficient to drive from ten to thirty machines.

The Wolseley's sheep-shearing machine is the outcome of a long series of experiments extending over a period of some seventeen years.

It was first introduced to public notice in the year 1887 at Eureka Station, on the Barwon River, the property of the inventor, where the intrinsic merits of the principle were carefully demonstrated and proved by the shearing of 1,500 Merino sheep. It was ever considered an impossibility to shear sheep by machinery, but since the birth of the Wolseley's sheep-shearing machine, and it became *un fait accompli*, there have been numerous imitators, each one trying to improve on the patented principle. There have been sixty-nine applications for patents in New South Wales for new sheep-shearing machines, but so far few, except the first born, have proved practically successful, others being in the embryo or experimental stage. In 1888 F. Y. Wolseley sold the patent rights to a company, and from that time to the present there have been over 50,000,000 of sheep shorn by the aid of the machine that bears his name, and with beneficial results.

The benefits of the shearing machine may be summarized as follows: (1) A gain of about 8 ounces extra wool obtained from each Merino sheep the first year being machine shorn. (2) The wool being cut evenly close to the skin, the staple not being injured by being double cut, although no increase in market price follows, yet it is preferred by buyers. (3) The sheep are not cut or injured in any way; thus the usual allowance of 1 per cent for deaths resulting from cuts and stabs inflicted by the old style of shears is saved. (4) No skilled labor is required, as any man or boy without any previous knowledge of shearing sheep can in the course of two or three days' practice become an expert shearer with the machine shears. (5) The work of the shearer is rendered very much lighter and he can work regularly six days in every week, as he is no longer troubled with swelled wrists. He can shear (and in a most perfect manner) nearly 30 per cent more sheep per day, and thus increase his hitherto ordinary daily wage or income. Under the old system of shearing it used to be considered a fair average for a

number of men to shear 50 to 100 sheep per day, whereas now, under the new system, the men average from 100 to 130 sheep per day (an accompanying record of 50 men shearing at the Barcaldine shed in Queensland).

The Wolseley sheep-shearing machine possesses the value of simplicity in its mechanical construction, and unless by gross carelessness or intention it can not get out of order. All its parts are interchangeable, therefore it may be said to be almost everlasting. The mechanical construction of the machine may be briefly dissected as follows:

A gun-metal casing, nickel plated, some 9 inches long, contains the few working parts. Through the hand part of the casing runs a steel spindle, on the fore part of which is a balance piece, into which is screwed an eccentric pin carrying a friction roller. A fork, or lever, whose fulcrum lies above and a little behind the balance piece on the main spindle. The friction roller works inside the cheeks of the lever, and thus, as the main spindle rotates, causes the lever to reciprocate. The end of the lever is forked and rests on the knife or cutter. Midway between the cutter end and the friction roller a spherical-headed stud has its point resting in a cup countersunk in the lever. The head of the stud abuts against a circular crown piece inside a milled-headed hollow nut, which, as it is screwed into the cap or covering of the casing in front, presses down the lever, and thus, at its forked end, gives pressure to the cutter, which, reciprocating over the steel comb underneath it, cuts the wool as the comb is pushed into it. Motion is conveyed to the main spindle by means of a friction greased bracket fixed 7 feet above the shearing floor. A level edge friction wheel rotates by contact with a level edge iron wheel revolving on main shafting. The spindle of the leather friction wheel, as it rotates, communicates rotatory motion to a rope core inside a flexible tube, which, being connected at its end to the spindle in the handle of the shearing machine through a universal joint, as the rope rotates so does it cause the spindle to rotate, and it to give reciprocating motion to the lever and thus motion to the cutter. The leather level friction wheel is brought into position or contact with the main driving wheel by pulling an overhanging cord; thus, in a moment, the shearing machine is set in motion and as instantly stopped by pulling a second overhanging cord. By means of this flexible connection between the overhead driving gear and the hand machine the operator or shearer is enabled to twist and turn his hand about in all and every direction, and so move easily the machine over the body of the sheep. As soon as a shearer learns to use the machine shears to the best advantage he can shear a sheep in the space of from two to four minutes.

A simple and useful shearing machine is also procurable here, suitable for small selecters and farmers, working by hand, one man to two shearers. There is a driving wheel 4 feet in diameter, and, if worked by a horse, from 5 to 10 machines could be kept going, whilst steam could be used to adapt them to the largest sheds. These machines are

newly patented, and it is claimed by the inventors that repeated trials have proved them to be strong, simple, and durable, whilst they shear clearly, neatly, and expeditiously.

My attention has been called to another sheep-shearing machine, the invention of a New South Wales mechanic, known as the silver sheep-shearing machine. The following is the description given of it by the Town and Country Journal of this city (and, I am told, it is giving great satisfaction on some of the largest stations in the colonies). In all probability it will be exhibited at Chicago.

To give what might be defined as a popular idea of the silver shearer—a fish of an almost circular barrel and about 7 inches long, denuded of fins or back spines, and only thick enough to rest comfortably in the hand. Now, imagine the mouth to be a steel comb about 2 inches wide, to represent the lower jaw, and three-pronged triangular disc of steel as the upper jaw. The former is stationary, the latter oscillates. That is all which is visible in front of the handle. Imagine the tail of your fish to consist of a few universal joints made in small steel links, which enable the machine to be moved in far more directions than the human hand can encompass. One link of this is all to be seen at the rear end; and it is there only for the purpose of readily attaching it to the motive power. All the other mechanism of the machine is inclosed in the body of our fish, which is contained in the shearer's hand. Now let us realize the fact that the upper jaw can be rotated across the comb at the rate of 6,000 movements per minute, and that each movement gives three cuts along the fleece, leaving a perfectly clear track of over 2 inches wide, and that this track can be made just as fast as the operator is able to run his hand from one end of the sheep to another; and, if he be even a fairly good operator, it is only by pure accident or willful design that he can injure the sheep's skin even while working so close that the animal going out of his hands almost looks as if it had been shaved, while the fleece does not present a tear and the shearing floor no fluff.

The motive power required for the work described is of a most simple, effective, and original design. On the steam-engine's driving shaft is a wooden wheel with a beveled edge; to a post beside this is a beveled circular wooden pyramid, to the base of which is attached a flexible link and connecting hook. From the movable arm which carried the pyramid is a perpendicular lever, which by two movements of the hand connects or disconnects the motive power. Now comes, perhaps, what is the most original and creditable feature of the silver shearer. It consists of two parts, viz, the outer covering and the coil by which power is transmitted from the driving shaft to the shearing machine. The outer covering is merely a piece of steel ribbon of any length, a half inch wide and about one-sixteenth of an inch thick. In a screw-cutting lathe is put a mandrel of the size required, and at one end is fixed one end of the ribbon. As the lathe revolves the ribbon is wound in screw-like form round the mandrel; when the latter is withdrawn there is a perfectly smooth barrel of flexible steel, with apertures throughout its whole length to admit the passage of air and give the necessary flexibility. The ends of this tube are fitted with collars, the one for connecting with the driving power, the other for attaching the machine to the catgut and steel core which pass through the flexible shaft. The latter is of special and simple construction. It consists of a hinge tube, which is opened or closed by a ring; its use is to facilitate the act of attaching the shearer to the core. This core is composed of alternate pieces of catgut with steel hook on eye links, which constitute a universal joint; and, by being slightly greater in diameter than the gut, they protect it from wearing out by friction. The velocity of the core in this case is no retardment of the machine's work, as in some other machines; nor is appreciable heat generated, because the apertures of the flexible tube admit a free current of air to the revolving core. Hence the necessity to use grease or some

lubricant is obviated, and the shearer is not subjected to occasional showers of molten fat. This is a very important element in the construction of the silver shearer.

QUANTITY OF WOOL.

In contrast with the harsh strong fiber of the European wool, that of Australia is distinguished by its brightness and soft silky character, due entirely to the mildness of the climate. Buenos Ayres rivals these colonies in this latter respect, but scab, footrot, etc., appear to have played sad havoc there. One great desideratum with the wool-grower is to attain uniformity of characteristics and secure the same fiber on all parts of the body of the sheep; management, feeding, pasturage, etc., all tending to the successful carrying out of this object. The fiber naturally varies in different breeds, that of the Saxon Merino being $\frac{1}{1370}$ and of Southdown $\frac{1}{1100}$ per inch. The soundness of the fiber proves the healthiness of the sheep. Strong, *i. e.*, cross-bred, wool may go 20 inches in length, and this great length of staple, combined with its strength of fiber, luster, and elasticity, renders Australian wool the most valuable of all for manufacturing purposes. The fleece of lambs not more than one year old is not now so much in favor since modern machinery calls for staple of uniform length.

The component parts of wool are supposed to be 50.65 per cent carbon; 7.03 per cent hydrogen; 17.71 per cent nitrogen; 24.61 per cent oxygen and sulphur, and 2 per cent of ash, whilst the yolk is soap with a basis of potash. This last is affected by the rays of a very hot sun, the wool dries up, the growth is stifled, and the fleece is rendered poor and unthrifty, more especially about the back and shoulders. The yolk is also subject in wet seasons to being washed out by continuous and heavy rains, thus deteriorating the quantity and the quality of the clip. But it is not only in this respect that these downpours are prejudicial. The nutritious qualities of the grass are affected, and the sheep, more especially the weaners and lambs, lose vigor and stamina, falling more easily a prey to parasites. Furthermore, foot rot and worms are induced, diseases which call for all the owners' experience, entail great trouble, involve a considerable expenditure of time to eradicate, and can not but act unfavorably on the condition and wool of the stricken animals.

The following table gives some details as to the weight of fleeces of several breeds of sheep at 36 months:

Breeds.	Rams.	Ewes.	Wethers.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
Lincoln and Merino	8–20	7½	8
Leicester and Merino		7	7
Border and Merino		7½	7½
Romney and Merino		6¾	7
Cotswold and Merino		7	7
Shropshire and Merino		5½	5¾
Hampshire and Merino		6½	6½
Southdown and Merino	14–16	6	6¼
Merino, flock		7	9

To show how the fleeces of rams vary in weight, I may remark that of twenty-seven fleeces of one of the best clips of the colony, the average was 21¾ pounds, some going as low as 11¾ pounds. Full-blooded sheep are calculated to give 12 pounds for rams and 7½ pounds for ewes when grass-fed only, whilst 7 pounds is about the average of crossbreeds. The number of this last class of sheep is, it is asserted, far below what it should be. Large tracts of country exist well adapted to their nurture, and where the land is thus suitable there is every inducement for owners to put their older ewes to long-wooled rams, as, under proper management, they will pay much better than Merinos, more especially in view of the prospect of a large surplus of fat sheep and heavy shipments of frozen mutton. Besides, the local butchers prefer them as being heavier and bringing more money. The highest return for wool and mutton combined is yielded by the Lincoln crossed with the Merino; Border Leicester and Romney Marsh follow, and Hampshire, Devons, and Leicester, in the order indicated.

PREPARING AND MARKETING WOOL.

An incontrovertible axiom of the wool trade is that "the more skillfuly a clip is prepared for market the greater the profit." It matters comparatively little how good may be the quality of the wool, it will fail to realize its proper price if the skirting, classing, and packing are carelessly done.

The first-named operation I have already noticed; the second is carried out by wool-sorters, who are generally practical tradesmen. They throw the fleeces into separate bins, classifying them as first and second combing and first and second clothing; any fleeces of superior quality being put aside as "super." The first combing contains the average grade as regards length and quality, the second being of a longer and stronger type; clothing kinds correspond in quality with combings, but are much shorter. Apparently there is some difficulty in securing competent men at the stations where classing is done, and some owners object that it does not pay, whilst the sheds are often not large enough to warrant the expense, nor have they sufficient convenience. In thirty six districts last season's classification is reported as good, but in the remainder as unsatisfactory.

As a general rule the clips of the large stations are very carefully prepared for market; unfortunately this is not so with the smaller ones of farmers, etc., whose wool does not realize the price paid for the station clips and who lay the blame on the broker. Yet the latter most probably gives the same attention to all alike, but he can not prevent the buyer perceiving that, although the quality of the wool in the small lot, of say 15 to 30 bales, is good, the fleeces are unclassed, unskirted, and often mixed with short straws, etc. Consequently as much as 2½*d.* per pound lower is obtained than the market rate for station clips. The next lot *submitted is* perhaps spade packed and presents a good appearance,

but a nearer examination shows the wool to be of very uneven quality, fine quarter-bred wool being mixed with strong three-quarter-bred Lincoln fleeces worth 4*d.* per pound less. Another lot may be Lincolns of large size, of long, coarse, and lustrous fiber, and under ordinary circumstances should fetch the current price of the market. But, because a few fleeces are mixed with them which, through wet or disease, have felted on the sheep's back, the figure realized is perhaps 1*d.* per pound less, simply for want of care to pack these damaged fleeces separately.

Sheep are popularly supposed to be covered with wool, but, in reality, many mongrel-bred sheep grow a species of harsh, coarse hair or kemp among their fleeces, and to eradicate this should be the aim of farmers and small growers by carefully culling out inferior animals and breeding from superior stock, for it costs no more to feed the latter.

As I have already remarked, the shearing should be done closely and carefully, and when the fleece is off it should be put, intact, on the skirting table, opened out, and the pieces, necks, breechlocks, etc., reremoved, when it is ready for rolling. This is done by turning back the neck to the shoulder and the sides so as to narrow the fleece to a strip 18 inches in width, the tip inwards; beginning at the breech end it is then firmly rolled up, so as to leave the best part of the fleece exposed, and requiring no kind of tying. If, however, any string is wanted, it should be that white kind used by grocers, costing 1*s.* per pound, the sewing description shedding small strands, which get left in the wool. On this account tying should never be adopted, as not only does it delay purchasers in estimating values, but these bits are apt to break some delicate part of the machinery, or, if they get into the fabric they show up thick and will not take the same dye or color as the wool. For these reasons I am told that not 5,000,000 fleeces out of the total 61,000,000 which, it is anticipated, will be the output of 1892, will be tied.

Woolpacks are imported from Calcutta, a few only coming from Dundee, and are generally 4 feet 6 inches by 2 feet 9 inches to 5 feet 3 inches by 2 feet 9 inches, weighing 10 to 12 pounds. They range from 2*s.* 6*d.* for the very best to 1*s.* 11*d.* each, and an additional 1*s.* 3*d.* is calculated as the expense pressing, say a total of 3*s.* 3*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* per bale. Each class of wool should be packed separately, two small bales of distinct descriptions being far preferable to one mixed. A well-pressed bale should measure 4 feet in length by 2 feet 6 inches square, as it is easy to handle and for storage in warehouse or ship. Each bale should be distinctly branded on both ends and sides with H. for hoggetts, E. for ewes, W. for wethers, P. for pieces, B. for bellies, L. for locks, L. B. S. for lambs. Ink, free from every oily mixture, should be used and the bales should not weigh more than 360 to 400 pounds of greasy or 260 pounds of washed fleeces. Stencil plates should be employed so as to render the marks clear and distinct, the packages numbered from 1 onward, and a way-bill, giving brands and description of each

bale, should be forwarded to the agent the day the wool leaves the station. High prices for some time prevented small growers purchasing wool presses, but lately one or two cheap and effective kinds have been put on the market at prices, say about £30, within the reach of farmers, etc. They weigh from 11 cwt. to 20 cwt., and with a man and a boy to work them will turn out from 10 to 20 bales per diem. The wool of New South Wales is partly disposed of at Sydney, balance being sent to London on owners' account, but is very rarely sold at the station.

The clip of 1890–'91 was distributed as follows:

Port of shipment.	Greasy.	Washed.	Total.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
Sidney	206, 430, 251	2, 727, 079	209, 157, 330
Melbourne	55, 981, 297	947, 590	56, 928, 887
Adelaide	11, 004, 076	1, 337, 933	12, 342, 009
Brisbane	749, 461	26, 689	776, 150
Total	274, 165, 085	5, 039, 291	279, 204, 376

Which shows an increase in quantity shipped from Sydney and Newcastle in 1891, as compared with 1890, of 20,976,256 pounds. As the total exported from Sydney in 1891 was 243,285,629 pounds, greasy and washed, as noted below, 34,128,299 pounds must have belonged to the previous clip.

Whither.	Washed.		Greasy.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.		*Pounds.*	
United Kingdom	36, 391, 956	£1, 838, 019	138, 797, 481	£4, 108, 436
New Zealand	360	11	.....	.....
India	8, 840	455	.....	.....
Belgium	2, 054, 399	90, 900	33, 620, 273	926, 624
France	1, 884, 406	88, 139	11, 999, 501	321, 414
Germany	163, 092	8, 185	14, 433, 596	398, 739
Italy	.....	.....	30, 883	869
Japan	16, 572	902	.....	.....
Portugal	.....	.....	21, 705	789
New Caledonia	309	21	.....	.....
United States	51, 727	2, 800	3, 810, 627	128, 224
Total	40, 571, 563	2, 029, 432	202, 714, 066	5, 888, 076

During the season, say September, 1890, to February, 1891, the 236,500 bales purchased in Sydney were distributed as follows:

	Bales.
Speculation and home market	55, 000
France	92, 000
Germany and Belgium	73, 000
Local scourers	14, 000
America	2, 000

Showing that French representatives were extensive investors and that considerable purchases were made on German account.

The wool is taken from the station to the railway en route to Sydney

by horse or bullock teams; if by the latter, some twenty oxen are yoked to one wagon carrying, as a rule, 5 to 6 tons, although as many as 60 bales have been seen as one load. Some is shipped at Newcastle. As it is a return cargo from the station, the average of the teamsters' charge is 1*s.* per ton per mile up to 100 miles and 10*d.* for a longer distance. The railway rates are as follows:

Terminus.	Miles.	Scoured, per ton.	Greasy, per ton.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Hay to Sidney	454	8 3 9	3 4 9
Goulburn to Sidney	134	2 13 9	2 1 6
Bourke to Sidney	503	5 13 3	4 1 3
Mudgee to Sidney	195	3 11 4	2 15 3
Narrabri to Sidney	350	5 6 11	4 7 1
Tamworth to Sidney	281	4 10 11	3 15 1
Tenterfield to Sidney	479	5 10 11	3 15 1
Narrabri to Newcastle	252	4 4 11	3 5 1
Tamworth to Newcastle	183	3 8 11	2 17 6
Tenterfield to Newcastle	381	4 8 11	2 17 6

Not so very many years have elapsed since the Queensland squatter, after seeing his last wagonload started from his station for the coast, would take a run home to England, returning to the colony in time to meet his wool on its arrival at the port of shipment, so long and tedious was the journey. Drays and impromptu slides had to be made; creeks and rivers to be crossed; droughts killed off the bullocks for want of feed and water; floods converted the banks of rivers, etc., into "tented fields" populated by drivers, whose rations often ran low; bush fires menaced the safety of the men, cattle, and freight, besides the occasional attacks by natives; in short, wool, while in transit from the far-back stations to the seaport, had an adventurous and risky career. There have been instances of two different years' clips being on the road at the same time.

As regards the length of time during which wool can be kept on large flocks, I can not find out that any such experiment has ever been tried. I have been shown some magnificent wool that had been left on for seven years, but it should not be and is not allowed in this country to remain longer than twelve months.

I do not think we can anticipate any demand worth mentioning for our own (*i. e.* American) sheep for breeding purposes, even if of most undoubted quality, as the pastoralists of New South Wales, with some exceptions, do not appear to think their flocks have been benefited from those already introduced, the character of country and keep being so entirely different. The fact appears to be that the climate of New South Wales is a species of alembic in which all imported wool becomes converted into and acquires the various characteristics of that of its local pasturage in the colony. Naturally all must not be left to climate. The eye of the master or of his trustworthy representative must always be kept on the paddocks and their contents, the woolshed at shearing time, and on all the current operations of the station.

Before passing on to other subjects I desire to record my hearty concurrence with the views expressed by the late Mr. Consul Griffin in his remarks on wool (New South Wales; Her Commerce and Resources, pp. 168, 169), and to confirm, from my own experience, his assertion that Australians in general display every desire to enter into commercial relations on a most extensive basis with the United States, are most friendly with our citizens, and give the preference to our manufactures; but they naturally desire to see these feelings reciprocated and a market opened for their wool.

Thanks to the courtesy of Mr. H. M. Wright, of this city, I am enabled to conclude this portion of my report by giving the following statistics to the end of what is treated as the wool year, *i. e.*, from July 1 to June 30. The following table shows the number of bales offered and sold in Sydney during the above period of 1891–'92 and the four preceding seasons:

Season.	Offered.	Sold.
	Bales.	*Bales.*
1887–'88	227,466	162,511
1888–'89	268,284	209,252
1889–'90	268,790	234,419
1890–'91	333,876	251,314
1891–'92	361,880	278,304

And the destination of the 278,304 bales sold was approximately as shown below:

	Bales.
To the continent	167,000
Home trade and London	90,000
America	7,800
China and Japan	500
Local scourers and manufacturers	13,000
Total	278,300

The prices current during the season are now ascertained to have been as follows:

Description.	Superior.	Good.	Medium.	Inferior.
	Pence.	*Pence.*	*Pence.*	*Pence.*
Greasy fleece	9 to 12½	7¾ to 8¾	6½ to 7½	4½ to 6½
Greasy lambs	9 11¾	7 8	5 6½	3 4½
Greasy pieces	7¾ 8¼	6 7	5 5¾	3 4½
Greasy bellies	5 6	4 4¾	3¼ 3¾	2 3
Greasy crossbreeds	9 6¾	8 8¾	7 7½	6 6¾
Scoured fleece	15¼ 16¾	13½ 15	12 13	10½ 11¾
Scoured pieces	12½ 13½	10½ 12	9 10	6 8½
Scoured bellies	11 12	10 10¾	8 9½	5½ 7½
Scoured locks	8¼ 9	7 8	6 6¾	4 5½
Washed fleece	12¼ 13	11 12	10 10¾	8 9½

Superior greasy Merinos realized somewhat better prices than in 1890–'91, owing to American demands, as did also crossbred wools which were sought for by Yorkshire buyers, other kinds having depreciated in value.

The following table shows the total output of New South Wales wool for the wool year, with an increase of 78,879 bales over its predecessor:

From—	To British and foreign ports.	To Victoria.	To South Australia.	To Queensland.	Total.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Sydney	568, 706	34, 436	.....	15	603, 157
Newcastle	58, 206	.....	.....	.....	58, 206
Albury	.....	42, 875	.....	.....	42, 875
Corowa	.....	14, 860	.....	.....	14, 860
Euston	.....	3, 158	.....	.....	3, 158
Howlong	.....	264	.....	.....	264
Moama	.....	101, 852	.....	.....	101, 852
Mulwala	.....	2, 836	.....	.....	2, 836
Swan Hill	.....	54, 430	.....	.....	54, 430
Tocumwall	.....	2, 707	.....	.....	2, 707
Silverton	.....	.....	4, 469	.....	4, 469
Wentworth	.....	10, 665	33, 764	.....	52, 429
Willyanna	.....	.....	10, 660	.....	10, 660
Boggabilla	.....	.....	.....	1, 481	1, 481
Total	626, 912	276, 083	48, 893	1, 496	953, 384
Less imported from Queensland for year ending June 30, 1892					36, 172
Total production of New South Wales					917, 212

Finally, the wool barometer is now read to indicate fairer weather for this staple, an excellent though somewhat tardy rainfall having brightened the pastoral horizon, whilst it is generally thought that the lowest point of the declining tendency of prices in Europe has been reached.

It has been suggested that a trophy, representing the value of all the wool produced in Australasia since its first export from New South Wales, should be sent to the Chicago Exhibition; meanwhile satisfactory measures are being taken to secure a fitting display of the wools of this colony, the only one which will be represented at the World's Columbian Exposition.

VERMIN AND DISEASES.

NOXIOUS ANIMALS.

For the destruction of noxious animals an act entitled "The pastures and stock protection act" was passed in 1880. This act is administered by local boards, who are elected annually and consist of eight members, under whose control the receipts and expenditures are placed in their respective districts. The funds are subsidized by the Government to the extent of a maximum of 10*s.* in the pound raised by local assessment among stock-owners with ten head and over of large stock (*i. e.*, horses and cattle or horses or cattle). From this fund all moneys are disbursed for salary and other charges; also bonuses for scalps of noxious animals, at rates fixed annually by the boards at a meeting held for that purpose. Much good has resulted from this act, as large numbers of useless and destructive animals have been destroyed and the carrying capabilities of the country proportionately increased.

For the purposes of this act the following animals are at present, or

may from time to time be, proclaimed noxious animals, the rates stated below being those fixed by the boards:

Native dogs, 10 to 60*s.* each; native-dog pups, 5 to 20*s.* each; kangaroos, 1*d.* to 1*s.* each; wallabies, 1*d.* to 1*s.* each; waliaroo, 1*d.* to 1*s.* each; paddymelons, 1 to 3*d.* each; kangaroo rats, 2 to 6*d.* each; opossums, 1*d.*; wild pigs, 1*s.*; bilboes, 2*s.* 6*d.*; eagle hawks, 2*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.*; emus, 1*d.* to 1*s.*; crows, 2 to 6*d.*; hares, 2*d.* to 1*s.*

As regards the diseases to which sheep are subjected, they are thus detailed and commented upon by Mr. Bruce, chief inspector of stock, to whom my thanks are due for the following information:

ANTHRAX.

Anthrax among sheep and cattle prevails in some parts of this colony. No curative measures are available, but those of a preventive nature have been used among sheep, namely, inoculation by means of Pasteur's vaccine anthrax. This method has been adopted in some instances in 1891. Some 98,000 sheep were so treated, with losses, after first vaccination, of only 10 sheep; after second operation of only 15; and after third vaccination, of 340 sheep. Upon the whole the result was highly satisfactory, the losses being less than one-half of 1 per cent. It is, beyond all doubt, the only effectual means of dealing with and protecting stock from the ravages of this incurable disease.

SCAB.

The last outbreak of scab in sheep in this colony occurred in 1862 and 1863, when some 500,000 sheep were infected. The disease was eradicated in 1868 and has not since that time appeared in New South Wales flocks, which, January 1, 1892, number nearly 62,000,000. In 1870 some 6,000,000 sheep were infected in Victoria, but in that colony, where there are some 12,000,000 sheep, and also in South Australia, with some 8,000,000, and Queensland, with more than 20,000,000 sheep, the flocks are entirely free from scab. New Zealand, with some 17,000,000 sheep, is also believed to be free from scab, although not officially declared to be so, and in Western Australia, where there are about 2,000,000 sheep, there are only a few stations infected.

This disease can be effectually dealt with by carefully collecting all sheep infected and dipping them two or three times (at intervals of about ten days) in a preparation of tobacco and sulphur in the proportion of 1 pound of each to 5 gallons of water. The tobacco should be infused for not less than five hours and sulphur added in the dip, the temperature of which should be from 100° to 110° F. The properties of this mixture are both curative and preventive. An equally effective preparation exists in lime and sulphur, mixed in the proportion of one-half pound of lime and 1 pound of sulphur to 1 gallon of water, boiled for about ten minutes, to which must be added 3 gallons of hot water, the dip given the same as in the case of tobacco and sulphur dressing.

Owing to the stringency of our imported-stock act and regulations it is now practically impossible for scab to be introduced by foreign sheep into this colony (*i. e.*, sheep from places outside the Australian colonies). All sheep from foreign countries have to be placed in quarantine for a period of ninety days and dipped three times with one or other of the above mixtures. Sheep arriving from clean Australian colonies by authorized vessels, if in charge of their owner or his agent or servant and accompanied by clean certificate and declaration, may be introduced into this colony without being dipped. If these conditions are not complied with the sheep are quarantined and dipped.

TICKS.

Sheep are subject to ticks in the colder and upland portions of this colony, where owners are not careful to dip the flocks after shearing. Those who take this precaution are well repaid by the improved condition of their sheep and the increased value of their clip. If dipping were made compulsory by legislation, as is proposed to be done, it would prevent the spread of this pest.

FLUKE.

Fluke prevails in some portions of this colony, and the following preventives are used, viz, turpentine, sulphate of iron, Liverpool salt, and sulphur. As this disease originates in swampy, low, innutritious country, means are being taken, by surface draining, to get rid of the swamps or stagnant water. Where practicable the sheep are removed to saltbush country or to country partaking as much as possible of saline properties, and if they are not very badly affected they fatten for market.

WORMS.

Tape (*Tænia expansa*), stomach (*Strongylus contortus*), and lung worms (*Filaria bronchalis*) prevail more or less in the upland, and, in wet seasons, in other parts of the colony. There are several drenches in use for these parasites, opinions inclining to the efficacy of one or the other for tape and stomach worms. The drench composed of arsenic and soda is made as follows: One pound 6½ ounces avoirdupois of arsenic and 3 pounds of washing soda, or, what is by some considered better, 3 pounds of potash, in 10 gallons of water, boiled slowly for half an hour, care being used to see that all the arsenic is dissolved, to which add 32 gallons of water for grown sheep, 44 gallons of water for weaners, 56 gallons of water for lambs, 1 fluid ounce of the mixture being a dose in each case. This drench has been most generally used in this colony, one dose very frequently proving sufficient. The mixture requires frequent stirring to prevent the arsenic settling, which might make the remedy too strong toward the finish. The health of the sheep or condition of the wool is not impaired by its use. Turpentine, with various vehi-

cles, has been very generally used for stomach, tape, and lung worms with good results, when repeated. Hayward's Specific has given satisfaction for lung worms. Potties' and Weaver's arsenical drenches are reported to have been used in several districts with fairly satisfactory results.

FOOT ROT.

Foot rot prevails in some parts of this colony, in the upland wet portions more particularly, and also in other parts during seasons favorable for its development. The course to pursue in its treatment is first to remove all diseased portions of the hoof, care being used not to cause the foot to bleed. The sheep should then be run through troughs, in which is placed a dressing. That recommended by the Government veterinarian is as follows: Arsenic, from 1 to 2 ounces; potash, 2 to 4 ounces; water, 1 gallon. This mixture to be boiled slowly for half an hour at least till the arsenic is thoroughly dissolved. Another dressing is composed of sulphate of copper (bluestone), is nearly as effective as arsenic, and does not make the hoof so hard or brittle. This mixture is made as follows: Sulphate of copper, ½ pound to 1 pound, dissolved in a gallon of water. The following dressings may be used by hand either with or without the above applications. For dressings: Stockholm tar, 20 parts; carbolic acid, 1 part; or Stockholm tar, 8 parts, bluestone (in powder), 1 part; or oil of tar, 10 parts; carbolic acid, 1 part olive oil, 1 part. In all cases where the sheep's feet have been dressed in any way, great care should be taken that their feet are kept clean and dry for some hours afterwards, running the sheep on straw, bark etc., laid down in the yards.

PLEURO-PNEUMONIA.

Pleuro-pneumonia has affected some of the cattle in this colony. Being incurable, inoculation, as a preventive, has in many instances been resorted to with the best possible effect, and is highly commended. If legislation were to make that operation compulsory in the case of the infected herds throughout the Australasian colonies, as is proposed, the disease would in the course of a few years be eradicated.

Rabbits are dealt with under a separate act. The means used in the work of their destruction is the inclosing of areas with rabbit proof wire netting, the cutting down and burning off of scrub and burning fallen timber, the digging out of burrows, trapping, poisoning with grain and other vehicles, such as bushes of which the rabbits are fond, chaff, etc. Poisoning with water in the warm months is very effectual, the tanks, dams, and other watering places being securely fenced against them during the night and open for the stock during the day. The poisons used are phosphorus and arsenic for grain, arsenic gener-

ally for water, and also for bushes as well as for chaff. The poisoned grain is conveyed about the holdings in spring carts to which is attached upon the axletree a small kind of plough which is worked by a system of wheels connected with the cart wheels. This makes a small furrow into which the grain, wheat, or oats fall. The rabbits, who are naturally fond of loose earth, follow up these furrows, and in so doing readily partake of this poisoned grain and rapidly succumb in very large numbers. As this grain is placed upon the barest parts of the country, the risk of stock partaking is almost, if not completely, removed, laid as it is in single grains.

The poisoned water is placed in vessels or receptacles specially provided for the purpose, so fenced as to exclude all larger animals from drinking thereat. The water is poisoned with strychnine or arsenic, the former being first dissolved with the requisite acid. The consumption of the water thus prepared for the rabbits in the hot weather destroys very large numbers of them. The fencing to exclude rabbits is of very great assistance in the work of their destruction. It consists of wire netting 36 to 42 inches wide, made of wire No. 17 gauge, size of mesh from 1¼ to 1⅝ inches (some 1½ inches also), and is erected upon or rather fastened to a wire fence, three wires being sufficient. A trench is cut into the ground about 6 inches deep into which one side of the netting is placed, the dirt being filled in and rammed. This has the effect of preventing the rabbits from scratching under. The netting is fastened in the middle and again to the top wires. All logs, stumps, leaning branches of trees, etc., should be removed from the fences, so as to prevent rabbits availing themselves of their assistance to get over the fence.

Various kinds of traps are used in killing the rabbits, the gin trap being the most general. Self-acting traps, with small rabbit proof inclosure, are also constructed on the fences, which are worked with the "tip" or with an opening similar to the rat trap, which works with spikes. The boundary riders in charge of the paddocks see to the destruction of the rabbits caught in these traps; they are also destroyed by digging out the burrows, shooting, and hunting with packs of dogs; and where they are very numerous, drives are carried out and large numbers destroyed. Bisulphide of carbon is also used for the burrows and is very effectual where properly worked; as is also fumigation, for which there are a good many forms of machines.

Upon the whole, however, the most effective means for dealing with this pest is fencing the holdings or groups of holdings—keeping possession or control of the water in the dry country—and using poisoned water and grain.

PASTURE, ROOTS, AND GRASSES.

Mr. F. Turner F. L. S., F. H. S., botanist to the agricultural depart ment of the New South Wales government, in prefacing his valuabl work on the forage plants of Australia, very aptly writes: "It has ofte been remarked, 'What would Australia do without its wool?' neve 'What would Australia do with its indigenous herbage,'" which is th chief factor in the production of the above staple. To the above worl and to the same author's census of the grasses of New South Wales, am indebted for the information which has enabled me to compile th accompanying tabulated lists of 188 native and 23 exotic grasses an 89 forage plants, giving their common and botanical names, the por tions of the colony in which they are found, and some general remark on their qualities as forage, etc.

In the coast division many of the natural grasses are strong an rank; notwithstanding this, however, the pastures in general are ver good, and dairying is carried on extensively.

In the mountain division the grasses are scant and wiry where ther is but little depth of soil. When the formation is favorable they ar nutritious and fattening. A large portion of this division consists o granite or free stone; where the soil is light and poor there is little be yond bush and scrub. English grasses, more especially in the coasta districts, thrive fairly well when they find any depth of soil that i naturally well watered.

In the western slope the natural grasses grow well, and are fattenin and nutritious on the best portions.

In the intermediate division at certain seasons the natural grasse are luxuriant and fattening. On lighter soils they are patchy and thin though yearly growing thicker; they are, of course, highly nutritious In spring and with the autumnal rains there is a full growth of th richest herbage.

The Salt Bush division produces not only good grasses, but the salt cotton, and other bushes which are so well suited to stock, are health and plentiful.

The overstocking of runs and the destructive consequences of th rabbit plague have had a most disastrous effect on the pasture land of this colony, for not alone have many valuable salinous and othe forage plants and grasses been destroyed, but their places have bee usurped by useless weeds which stock will not consume. It is there fore self evident that, to enable New South Wales to compete success fully with other countries in the growth of high-class wool and in th export of frozen meat, more attention must be devoted to pastures an some systematic cultivation must speedily be adopted or some of th most valuable grasses will become extinct. Mr. Turner maintains tha this country's native grasses are more valuable than any yet introduced *after experimenting* on more than one hundred species of European

Asiatic, African, American, and Australian grasses, the latter yielding more forage and exhibiting greater powers of endurance in times of drought than any exotics. There are some sixteen kinds which are greatly feared by pastoralists, because of their long seed awns or sharp-pointed leaves, which not only get into and damage the wool but occasionally penetrate the skin and cause death among the sheep.

The reproductive capacity of the soil is unquestionable, however closely the pasturage may be cropped; and the most arid and drought-stricken districts are soon covered with abundant grass, once a genial rainfall supplies the needed moisture. The practice of laying down permanent grasses is almost exclusively confined to dairy farming districts, 172,251 acres being under Lucerne and grasses in the south coast alone and 46,503 in the Richmond district.

The feed both in summer and winter is identical, viz, that provided by nature, and, except in times of drought, etc., the grass of the pasture lands suffices in the different ratios given already in the sheep and wool portion of this report, the capacity varying enormously according to the character of the country. Cattle and sheep also browse on the salt and cotton bush, so plentiful in certain parts of the colony, and on the tender twigs and foliage of many shrubs and trees, the qualities of which are described in the tables annexed. Neither grain nor pease are used for sheep, and but very little in the way of roots, except in New Zealand, where they are eaten off in the field, or here when given, in exceptional cases, to pure-bred stock housed or yarded. The minor grain crops of this colony are rye, millet, sorghum, and imptree, the cultivation of the third and fourth of which would appear, however, to have been abandoned. In 1890, 672 acres were under rye for grain, yielding 13.58 bushels to the acre, and the same area was devoted to millet, averaging 9.63 bushels per acre for 251 acres, the remaining 421 being cut green for cattle, whilst 510 acres were sown with rye for green food; the total area devoted to this product for cattle being 8,267 acres, chiefly in the dairy farming districts of Kiama, Illawarra, and Shoalhaven.

The table mentioned in my opening lines give the native and exotic grasses with their habitat, and a few short remarks on each will be found on the following pages, together with a similar list of forage plants.

Native and exotic grasses and forage plants.

NATIVE GRASSES.

Common name.	Botanical name.	Where found.	Remarks.
Australian millet.....	Panicum decompositum	Throughout New South Wales.	Favorite with all stock.
Barnyard grass.....	Panicum crus-galli....	Common to hot and temperate climates.	Annual; rich succulent herbage.
Bearded head grass	Amphipogon strictus .	All over colony.....	Perennial; resists long drought.
Bent grass.....	*Agrostis muelleri*	Southern mountains, New South Wales.	Succulent herbage for sheep.

Native and exotic grasses and forage plants—Continued.

NATIVE GRASSES—Continued.

Common name.	Botanical name.	Where found.	Remarks.
Bent grass	Agrostis scabra	High table-lands of New South Wales.	Rich herbage for sheep.
Do	Agrostis venusta	Low southern lands of New South Wales.	Do.
Do	Deyeuxia billardierii	Coastal lands of New South Wales.	Perennial in moist pastures.
Do	Deyeuxia breviglumis	Only on table lands of New England.	Perennial rich herbage.
Do	Deyeuxia fosterii	All over the colony	Winter growth when other grasses dormant.
Do	Deyeuxia frigida	Mountains of south of New South Wales.	Perennial; fairly productive in summer.
Do	Deyeuxia montana	do	Perennial; tender herbage.
Do	Deyeuxia nivalis	do	Perennial; yields fairly well.
Do	Deyeuxia plebeia	Coastal districts of New South Wales.	Not good forage; withers in heat.
Do	Deyeuxia quadriseta	do	Too harsh for sheep.
Do	Deyeuxia scabra	do	Perennial; not plentiful nor very good forage.
Blady grass	Imperata arundinacea	Wet eastern portions of colony.	Perennial; good herbage when young; binds river banks, etc.
Burr grass; small	Lappago racemosa	Throughout New South Wales.	Annual; liked by sheep.
Cane; bamboo grass	Glyceria ramigera	Clay-pans of Murrumbidgee, Lachlan, and Darling rivers.	Perennial; cattle eat leafy branches though stems too hard; good for thatching.
Cane finger	Leptochloa subdigitata	River banks and lakes of interior.	Perennial; coarse but relished when young.
Cockatoo grass	Panicum semialatum	Northeast and northwest districts.	Perennial; drought-resisting; good pasture.
Comet grass	Perotis rara	Northwest interior	Perennial; when green sheep like it.
Coolibar grass	Panicum trachyrachis	do	Perennial; formerly natives used seed as food.
Couch, dorib, Bermuda grass.	Cynodon dactylon	Colony generally	Perennial; drought-enduring; eaten by all stock.
Couch grass, seaside	Distichlis maritima	Southern parts of seacoasts.	Only valuable for binding embankments, etc.
Couch grass, salt marsh	Sporobulus virginicus	Salt marshes of coast	Perennial; fattens stock.
Couch grass, water	Paspalum distichum	Coastal swampy districts.	Perennial; stock of all kinds very fond of it.
Couch grass, coast	Zoysia pungens	Only on littoral sands or salt marshes.	Perennial; contains soda; good for health of stock.
Couch grass, floating	Chamæ raphis spinescens.	Near all swamps of colony.	Semiaquatic; favorite with horses and cattle.
Crowfoot or crab grass	Eleusine indica	Coast from Hunter and Tweed rivers.	Perennial; good herbage in summer.
Cuba, Tohnson, or Haleppo.	Sorghum halepense	Various parts of colony.	Perennial; 10 feet high on good soils; good forage.
Do	Sorghum plumosum	Coastal districts of colony.	Perennial; 4 to 8 feet high; almost as valuable as above.
Ditch millet	Paspalum scrobiculatum.	Wet lands of colony	Perennial; little or no value as pasture.
Egyptian finger grass	Eleusine ægyptiaca	Western interior of colony.	Annual; very nutritious for sheep.
Early spring	Eriochloa annulata	Coastal and colder parts of colony.	Perennial; excellent for milch cows.
Do	Eriochloa punctata	Greater portion of colony.	Perennial; succulent herbage.
Fescue grass, barren	Festuca bromoides	All over colony	Annual; of no use for anything.
Fescue grass, sheep's	Festuca duriuscula	Colder parts of colony	Perennial; sheep like the herbage.
Fescue grass, Hooker's	Schedonorus hookerianus.	Southern parts of colony	Perennial; good pasture.
Fescue grass, coast	Schedonorus littoralis	Littoral sands of colony.	Perennial; useless as pasture; good binder.
Five-awned grass	Pentapogon billardierii	Only in southern districts.	Annual; not good pasturage.
Golden beard	Chrysopogon gryllus	Interior of New South Wales.	Perennial; tender in summer, cane-like in winter.
Golden headed grass	Lamarckia aurea	Only in arid New South Wales.	Annual; no value as forage.
Hare's tail grass	Ectrosia leporina	Only in northwestern New South Wales.	Perennial; withstands protracted droughts.

Native and exotic grasses and forage plants—Continued.

NATIVE GRASSES—Continued.

Common name.	Botanical name.	Where found.	Remarks.
Knee-pointed fox-tail grass.	Alopecurus geniculatus.	Shallow waters of western New South Wales.	Annual; rich herbage, liked by all stock.
Kangaroo grass	Andropogon refractus.	Greater portion of New South Wales.	Perennial; good, aromatic herbage.
Kangaroo grass or tall oat.	Anthistiria avenacea	Only on rich soils of interior.	Perennial; nutritious when young.
Kangaroo grass, the common.	Anthistiria ciliata	All over the colony	Perennial; one of finest and most useful grasses.
Landsboro grass	Anthistiria membranacea.	All over western interior	Annual; most nutritious.
Large-headed setaria	Setaria macrostachya	Only in northeastern part of colony.	Annual; 6 feet high, suited to dairy cows.
Long hair plume grass	Dichelachne trinita	Different parts of colony	Perennial; greedily eaten by all herbivora.
Love grass, brown	Eragrostis brownii	do	Perennial; large yield on alluvial soil.
Love grass	Eragrostis chaetophylla.	do	Perennial; withstands prolonged droughts.
Do	Eragrostis diandra	Coastal districts of colony.	Perennial; favorite with all stock.
Do	Eragrostis eripoda	Clayey soils of interior	Perennial; hard, wiry nature, seldom eaten.
Do	Eragrostis falcata	Sandy soils of interior	Perennial; no value to pastoralists.
Do	Eragrostis kenndyii	Red soil of Wilcannia New South Wales, Queensland.	Perennial; withstands great drought and heat.
Do	Eragrostis lacumaria	Sandy soils of interior	Perennial; not much eaten, being wiry.
Do	Eragrostis laniflora	Clayey soils of interior	Perennial; no value as forage.
Do	Eragrostis leptostachya.	Coastal districts of New South Wales.	Perennial; tender herbage.
Do	Eragrostis megalosperma.	Only in northern coastal districts.	Perennial; when young, very succulent.
Do	Eragrostis nigra	Only in New England district.	Do.
Do	Eragrostis pilosa	All over the colony	Annual; good herbage.
Do	Eragrostis tenella	Northwestern plains of colony.	Annual; excellent pasture for sheep.
Marsh brome grass	Amphibromus neesii	Shallow waters of coast western districts.	Perennial; greedily eaten by all stock.
Manna grass	Glyceria fruitans	Coastal districts	Perennial; much sought after by horses and cattle.
Meadow rice grass	Microlaena stipoides	do	Perennial; good permanent pasture.
Mitchell grass	Astrebla elymoides	Northwest of New South Wales, Warrego, Queensland.	Perennial; much esteemed by stock owners.
Do	Astrebla pectinata	Western parts of colony.	Perennial; fattening qualities great.
Do	Astrebla triticoides	do	Perennial; fattens even when dried up.
Mulga grass	Danthonia bipartita	Arid interior of New South Wales.	Perennial; very nutritious.
Do	Neurachne mitchelliana.	do	Perennial; sheep like it.
Do	Neurachne munroi	Only in back country, New South Wales.	Perennial; very rare; sheep eat freely.
Native rice grass	Leersia hexandra	Near water in eastern parts of colony.	Perennial; stock very fond of it.
Nepal grass	Arundinella nepalensis.	Throughout the colony	Perennial; capital forage.
Nodding Roa	Poa nodosa	Only southern part of colony.	Perennial; rich herbage in summer.
Oat grass	Anisopogon avenaceus.	Not found west of Blue Mountains.	Perennial; when young cattle eat it.
Do	Danthonia carphoides	In colder parts of colony	Perennial; not plentiful; good forage.
Oat grass, hairy	Danthonia pilosa	Throughout the colony	Perennial; yields largely; rich and succulent.
Oat grass, racemed	Danthonia racemosa	Coastal and colder districts.	Perennial; good forage for sheep.
Oat grass, robust	Danthonia robusta	Southern Mountains of New South Wales.	Perennial; good when young.
Oat grass, spiked	Trisetum subspicatum	do	Perennial; good forage for sheep.
Panic grass, slender	Oplismenus compositus.	Scrubs of the coastal districts.	Perennial; only good as sward.
Do	Oplismenus setarius	do	Do.

Native and exotic grasses and forage plants—Continued.

NATIVE GRASSES—Continued.

Common name	Botanical name.	Where found.	Remarks.
Panick grass, dense flowered.	Panicum adspersum ..	And interior.....	Perennial; leafy herbage in summer.
Panick grass, Bailey's.	Panicum baileyi	Only in northeast parts of colony.	Perennial; leafy herbage; liked by stock.
Panick grass, two-colored.	Panicum bicolor	Plentifully in coastal districts.	Perennial; superior; liked by stock.
Panick grass, finger ...	Panicum cœnicolum ..	Chocolate soils in arid interior.	Perennial; yields fair amount of forage.
Panick grass, two-spiked.	Panicum distachyum .	Warmer parts of colony.	Perennial; valuable herbage in summer.
Panick grass, branched.	Panicum effusum	All over the colony.....	Perennial; much relished by all herbivora.
Panick grass, yellow-flowered.	Panicum flavidum	Interior of colony.....	Perennial; plentiful, good forage.
Panick grass, leafy	Panicum foliosum.....	Scrubs and river banks northeast of colony.	Perennial; not plentiful, not good forage.
Panick grass, slender ..	Panicum gracile.....	All over colony.....	Perennial; good pasture grass.
Panick grass, hairy	Panicum helopus.....	Only in arid interior....	Perennial; rich herbage.
Panick grass, Indian ..	Panicum indicum	Damp localities of coastal districts.	Perennial; of little value as feed.
Panick grass, silky	Panicum leucophœum.	Greater portion of interior.	Perennial; valuable pasture; prolific.
Panick grass, variable .	Panicum marginatum.	Coastal districts.....	Perennial; no use as forage; good binder of soil.
Panick grass, black....	Panicum melananthum	Damp places in coastal districts.	Annual; not plentiful; relished by stock.
Panick grass, Mitchell's	Panicum mitchellii....	Arid interior	Perennial; rich, succulent herbage.
Panick grass, mud.....	Panicum obseptum....	Borders of ponds in coastal districts.	Perennial; not plentiful; little value as feed.
Panick grass, small-flowered.	Panicum parviflorum .	Coastal districts.....	Perennial; fairly plentiful; rich herbage in summer.
Panick grass, rigid	Panicum prolutum	In the interior.....	Perennial; fairly plentiful; withstands dry weather.
Panick grass, pigmy ...	Panicum pygmoeum ..	Shady parts of coastal districts.	Perennial; no use as forage; only for sward.
Panick grass, creeping.	Panicum repens.....	Only on Murrumbidgee River.	Perennial; only eaten in times of scarcity.
Panick grass, reversed.	Panicum reversum....	Only in arid interior....	Perennial; not abundant; stock will browse on it.
Panick grass, very slender.	Panicum tenuissimum	Northeast part of colony	Perennial; yields fair amount of good herbage.
Panick grass, hooked ..	Panicum uncinulatum.	Coastal districts and northwest interior.	Perennial; 8 feet high; coarse; little value as forage.
Pigeon grass	Setaria glauca.....	All over the colony	Annual; yields rich herbage in summer.
Porcupine grass	Triodia irritans	Only in arid interior....	Perennial; a troublesome, prickly grass of the deserts.
Do.....	Triodia mitchellii	.....do	Perennial; no value as forage.
Purple-headed grass ...	Triaphis mollis.....	All over the interior	Perennial; good drought-resisting species.
Reed grass, the common	Phragmites communis.	Margins of all rivers and swamps.	Perennial; 5 to 12 feet high; only good as binder.
Reed grass, Hastings River.	Potamophila parviflora.	Only in northeast parts of colony.	Perennial; so rare that little is known of it.
Roly Poly grass, umbrella.	Panicum macractinum	All over arid interior...	Perennial; excellent pasture; stock like it.
Rough-bearded grass ..	Echinopogon ovatus ..	Poor soils of the coast ..	Annual; sheep only eat it in default of other feed.
Rye-like grass	Diplachne loliiformis..	Light sandy soils of western districts.	Annual; not of much value as forage.
Salt marsh grass	Lepturus cylindricus..	Salt marshes of southern parts of New South Wales.	Annual; of little value as forage.
Do.....	Lepturus incurvatus..	.....do	Annual; of little value for any purpose.
Satin heads.....	Andropogon erianthoides.	Western districts	Perennial; superior pasture grass.
Scaly poa	Poa cœpitosa.....	All over the colony	Annual; no value as pasture.
Scented golden beard ..	Chrysopogon parviflorus.	Coastal districts.....	Perennial; much relished when young.
Scrambling grass.....	Tetrarrhena juncea ...	Very rare in New South Wales.	Perennial; no value as pasture.
Short-leaved paspalum.	Paspalum brevifolium.	Coastal districts.....	Perennial; good for sheep.

Native and exotic grasses and forage plants—Continued.

NATIVE GRASSES—Continued.

Common name.	Botanical name.	Where found.	Remarks.
Silky heads	Andropogon bombycinus.	Generally over western interior.	Perennial; good when young; drought resisting.
Silver grass	Danthonia pallida	Coastal and western districts.	Perennial; rich when young; hardens with age.
Silver haired grass	Aira caryophyllea	Southern portions of colony.	Perennial; no great value as pasture.
Small burr grass	Lappago racemosa	All over the colony	Annual; in winter and spring good forage.
Small flowered Paspalum.	Paspalum minutiflorum.	Only in northeastern part of colony.	Perennial; good yield in summer.
Southern grass	Ischœmum australe	Moist soils of coastal district.	Perennial; grows long after other herbage is dead.
Southern grass, hairy	Ischœmum ciliare	Only in coastal districts.	Perennial; good pasture grass for sheep.
Southern grass, comb-like.	Ischœmum pectinatum	Various parts coastal districts.	Perennial; sheep very fond of it.
Southern grass, wheat	Ischœmum triticeum	Only in northeastern parts of colony.	Perennial; no good for forage, but useful binder.
Spear grass	Stipa aristiglumis	coastal districts and northwestern interior.	Perennial; considered a fattening grass.
Spear grass, silver-plumed.	Stipa elegantissima	Only in the interior	Perennial; only occasionally eaten by stock.
Spear grass	Stipa flavescens	Only in Maneroo plains and extreme south of New South Wales.	Perennial; little value for forage; hard and wiry.
Spear grass, bamboo	Stipa micrantha	Coastal districts	Perennial; horses very fond of it.
Spear grass	Stipa pubescens	do	Perennial; eaten when young; seed awns bad for wool.
Do	Stipa scabra	Dry soils in arid interior.	Perennial; sheep like it, but seed awns get into eyes.
Do	Stipa semibarbata	Colder parts of colony	Perennial; undesirable for sheep, seeds bad for wool.
Spear grass or cork-screw.	Stipa setacea	On all good soils of colony.	Perennial; barb-pointed seeds often kill sheep.
Spear grass, brown plumed.	Stipa tuckerii	Only in scrubs of interior.	Perennial; occasionally eaten, seeds not injurious.
Spear grass, three awned.	Aristida arenaria	Rich loamy soil of interior.	Perennial; sparingly eaten when young.
Do	Aristida behriana	Western interior	Perennial; similar to above.
Do	Aristida calycina	Sand hills of interior	Perennial; only eaten during scarcity; damages wool.
Do	Aristida depressa	Rich soil of interior	Perennial; too harsh for forage.
Do	Aristida leptopoda	do	Perennial; seeds very troublesome to sheep.
Do	Aristida ramosa	Greater part of colony	Perennial; poor forage and as preceding species.
Do	Aristida stipoides	Poor and sandy soils of interior.	Perennial; worst of all the species for forage, etc.
Do	Aristida vagans	Poor stony rises of coastal districts.	Perennial; winter forage; seeds less troublesome.
Spinifex grass, curious.	Spinifex paradoxus	Only in arid interior	Perennial; valuable forage in time of scarcity.
Spiny grass, rolling	Spinifex hirsutus	On coast of New South Wales.	Perennial; useless as forage—good as binder.
Spiny grass, Lindley's.	Sporobolus lindleyi	Only on rich soils of interior.	Perennial; sheep very fond of it.
Spiny grass, pretty	Sporobolus pulchellus.	On land liable to inundation.	Perennial; tender herbage in winter and spring.
Sporobolus grass, whorled.	Sporobolus actinocladus.	Only on arid plains of interior.	Perennial; succulent herbage in spring and summer.
Star grass or wind mill.	Chloris truncata	All over the colony	Perennial; sheep particularly fond of it.
Sugar grass	Hemarthria compressa.	Coastal districts	Perennial; valuable forage.
Do	Pollinia fulva	Only in southern parts of colony.	Perennial; rich herbage in summer; sheep fond of.
Summer grass	Panicum sanguinale	All over eastern parts of colony.	Annual; succulent, relished by all stock.
Swamp grass	Anthraxon ciliare	Only in New England district.	Perennial; too rare to be valuable.

Native and exotic grasses and forage plants—**Continued.**

NATIVE GRASSES—Continued.

Common name.	Botanical name.	Where found.	Remarks.
Swamp grass, couch ...	Chamæ raphis paradoxa.	Swamps of coastal district.	Semiaquatic, of which cattle are fond.
Swamp grass, brown flowered.	Diplachne fusca.....	Swampy lands of coast and interior.	Annual; greedily eaten by cattle.
Swamp grass, millet...	Isachne Australis.....	Wet lands of coast	Perennial; tender herbage for all herbivora.
Swamp grass, fox-tail..	Pennisetum compressum.	Swampy lands of coast and New England.	Perennial; must be burnt off before fit for forage.
Sweet grass	Glyceria latispicea....	Only in New England district.	Qualities not known.
Do.....	Glyceria fordeana	Moist lands of Darling and Lachlan rivers.	Perennial; succulent stems eaten by stock.
Sweet-scented grass ...	Hierochloa redolens...	Moist lands of southern mountains.	Perennial; fragrant; sought by all herbivora.
Do.....	Hierochloa rariflora ...	In southern parts of colony.	Do.
Tufted hair.....	Deschampsia cæspitosa	Marshy lands of southern parts of colony.	Perennial; only eaten when young.
Tussock grass.....	Sporobolus diander ...	Only in northeast part of colony.	Perennial; relished when young.
Tussock grass, or parramatta.	Sporobolus indicus....	In coastal districts	Perennial; good feed.
Tussock poa.....	Poa cæspitosa.....	All over colony.....	Perennial; excellent pasture grass.
Umbrella grass or spider.	Chloris acicularis	Loamy soils of interior.	Perennial; nutritious herbage in summer.
Do.....	Panicum divaricatissimum.	From coast to arid interior.	Perennial; yields valuable herbage in summer.
Wallaby grass.....	Danthonia semiannularis.	General throughout colony.	Perennial; one of most nutritious grasses in colony.
Weeping grass	Leptochloa chinensis .	Water-courses of northeast of colony.	Perennial; good forage in summer.
Wheat grass.....	Agropyrum scabrum..	All over the colony	Winter months, before other grasses grow, yields well.
Wheat grass, Maneroo.	Agropyrum pectinatum	Maneroo plains and south of colony.	Harsh when old, but relished when young.
Wheat grass, velvet leaved.	Agropyrum velutinum.	Lands liable to inundation, south of colony.	Not relished if other fodder obtainable.
White topper heads grass.	Danthonia longifolia..	Coastal districts and tablelands of colony.	Perennial; depends greatly on soil.
Do.	Pappophorum avesadecum.	Rich soils of interior...	Perennial; first class drought resisting.

EXOTIC GRASSES WHICH HAVE BECOME NATURALIZED.

Barley grass.....	Hordeum murinum ...	All over the colony.....	Annual; gets hard and wiry in summer.
Barley grass, meadow..	Hordeum nodosum	Only in few parts of south of colony.	Perennial; superior to above, seeds not so bad.
Beard grass.....	Polypogon monspeliensis.	Coastal districts.....	Annual; no agricultural value.
Brome grass, barren....	Bromus sterilis.....	Only in districts	Annual; dies on approach of hot weather.
Brome grass, soft	Bromus mollis	Various parts of colony.	Do.
Buffalo grass	Stenotaphrum americanum.	Loose soils of coastal districts.	Perennial; only eaten for want of other forage.
Canary grass	Phalaris canalienis....	Throughout the colony .	Annual; produces the canary seed of commerce.
Canary grass, lesser....	Phalaris minor.....	Throughout coastal districts.	Annual; little agricultural value.
Cocks foot grass or orchard.	Dactylus glomerata ...	Colder parts of the colony.	Perennial; apt to crowd out more delicate grasses.
Crested hair grass	Kœleria cristata	Very sparingly in the colony.	Perennial; contains little nutriment.
Darnal grass.....	Lolium temulentum...	Gradually spreading in coastal districts.	Annual; very deleterious.
English meadow grass, or Kentucky blue.	Poa pratensis	Rapidly spreading in coastal districts.	Perennial; smothers a tender crop.
Fescue grass, rigid	Festuca rigida	Rare in this, common in southern colonies.	Annual; troublesome in cultivated ground.
Glaucous grass, poa....	Poa glauca.....	Rare in this colony	Its value as pasture not known.
Goose grass.....	Poa annua	All over colony, except arid interior.	Annual; no value, dies in hot weather.

Native and exotic grasses and forage plants—Continued.

EXOTIC GRASSES WHICH HAVE BECOME NATURALIZED—Continued.

Common name.	Botanical name.	Where found.	Remarks.
Hair grass, early	Anthoxanthum odoratum.	Southern portions of colony.	Perennial; no value as forage.
Oats grass, wild	Avena fatua	Coastal districts stock yards.	Annual; almost uneatable in summer.
Prairie grass	Ceratochloa unioloides.	do	Annual; best annual grass ever introduced.
Quaking grass, large	Briza maxima	do	Annual; stock seldom or never touch it.
Quaking grass, little	Briza minor	All over colony	Annual; disappears in hot weather.
Rye grass, perennial	Lolium perenne	Not west of dividing range, nor on poor soil.	Perennial; sheep do not thrive well on it.
Vernal grass, sweet-scented.	Anthoxanthum odoratum.	Some pastures of south of colony.	Perennial; not first-class forage.
Yorkshire fog, or meadow soft grass.	Holcus lanatus	Colder parts of colony	Perennial; stock do like it.

FORAGE PLANTS.

All-fruited salt bush	Atriplex holocarpa	New South Wales and southern Australia.	Grows on arid plains in most adverse seasons of heat and drought.
Angular-fruited salt bush.	Atriplex angulata	do	Like the above is a famous salinous plant.
Appressed-leaved salt bush.	Kochia appressa	Arid central plains of Australia.	Not affected by hot or cold winds or drought.
Atripex-like goosefoot.	Chenopodium atriplicium.	New South Wales and Victoria, southern Australia.	Some qualities eaten with avidity by all herbivora.
Australian marshmallow.	Lavatera plebeid	In all the colonies	Roots used by aboriginals for food; favorite with cattle and sheep when young.
Barrier salt bush	Enchylœna tomentosa.	Arid interiors of all colonies.	Adventitious growths on it in times of great drought; occasions death of sheep.
Belar or bull oak	Casuarina glauca	Queensland, New south Wales, Victoria, southern Australia.	Grows rapidly; good forage during droughts.
Berrigan	Eremophila longifolia.	West Australia and above interiors of.	Chief standby when herbage fails.
Bladder salt bush	Artiplex vesicaria	Queensland, New South Wales, southern Australia.	Very plentiful; sheep and cattle thrive well on it.
Blue bush	Chenopodium auricomum.	From Darling River, New South Wales, to Gulf of Carpentaria.	Stock of all kinds very fond of it; leaves and young shoots eaten as spinach.
Do	Kochia sedifolia	Interior of New South Wales, Victoria, southern Australia.	Indicates arid soil; sometimes injurious.
Boree or weeping myall.	Acacia pendula	Marshy lands New South Wales and Queensland.	Cattle and sheep very fond of foliage.
Bramble acacia	Acacia sentis	Arid central plains of Australia.	Great drought-enduring qualities.
Branching goosefoot	Chenopodium nitrariacea.	Victoria, western Australia, New South Wales.	Favorite with herbivora; salinous plant.
Broad winged salt bush	Kochia planifolia	Central arid part of continent.	Useful forage in droughts; hard timber.
Cabbage bush	Pittosporum phillyreœoides.	do	Do.
Do	Heterodendron oleœfolium.	Northern and western plains of New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, southern Australia, and western Australia.	Valuable resources during droughts.
Cattle bush	Atalaya hemiglauca	New South Wales, southern Australia.	Leaves greedily eaten by cattle and sheep.
Cider gum	Eucalyptus gunnii	Peculiar to southeast of New South Wales, Baw Baw Mountains of Victoria.	Cattle and sheep partial to foliage.

Native and exotic grasses and forage plants—Continued.

FORAGE PLANTS—Continued.

Common name.	Botanical name.	Where found.	Remarks.
Circular-podded cassia.	Cassia circinata	Arid interiors of New South Wales and Queensland.	Very little leaf surface; sheep eat pods greedily; stands greatest drought.
Coastal salt bush	Rhagodia billardieri..	Littoral sands of all colonies.	Cropped by cattle, etc., even with ground, so is gradually disappearing; very useful as timber for drift sands.
Cotton bush	Kochia aphylla	Arid interiors in all colonies.	Withstands protracted drought; stock thrive well on it.
Cottony salt bush	Kochia lanosa	Interior of New South Wales, Queensland, South and West Australia.	Scarce through overstocking; like other salinous plants, drier the weather more luxuriantly it grows.
Crane's bill	Geranium dissectum.	Greater part interior of continent.	Superior pasture; drought-enduring herb.
Crow's foot or stork's bill.	Erodium cygnorum...	Interior of all colonies .	Good herbage when young; sharp-pointed seed awns attach to wool and penetrate animal's skin.
Curious-leaved cassia..	Cassia phyllodinea	Interior New South Wales and South Australia.	Scarce, because eaten by sheep and cattle even when other feed plentiful.
Curious salt bush.....	Sclerolœna paradoxa ..	Interior New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia.	Drought-enduring properties remarkable.
Curly yarren or gidgee.	Acacia homalophylla..	Arid interior of New South Wales and Murray River Flats, Victoria.	Drought-enduring properties phenomenal.
Dallachy's salt bush...	Chenolea dallachyana .	Plains and sand hills between Darling and Murray Rivers, New South Wales.	Endures drought to a marked degree; sheep eat greedily.
Darling clover.....	Trigonella suaviissima.	Interior all colonies except Queensland.	Very fattening; produces much herbage.
Desert cassia	Cassia eremophila.....	Arid interior all colonies	Excellent stand-by for sheep especially.
Do.....	Cassia desolata.....	....do	Sheep fond of its seed pods.
Dooba	Marsdenia leichhardtiana.	North Australia, Queensland, New South Wales, South and West Australia.	Climber; capital forage sheep like young shoots.
Emu bush.....	Eremophila oppositifolia.	Lachlan and Darling Rivers, New South Wales, Murray, Victoria; interior South Australia.	Available during protracted droughts; cattle and sheep fond of foliage.
Do.....	Eremophila bignoniæflora.	Interior New South Wales, Queensland, North Australia, Victoria	Stock do not browse on it at all seasons.
Emu bush, native fuchsia.	Eremophila maculata .	Interior all colonies, except West Australia.	Suspected of poisoning sheep not proved.
Erect she oak or forest oak.	Casuarina suberosa ...	Eastern portions of colony.	Cattle and sheep eat seedlings, so not plentiful.
Gray bush.....	Kochia pyramidata ...	West of Darling River, New South Wales.	Indicates good land; salinous; valuable.
Gray salt bush.....	Atriplex cinerea	Saline Sands, East South Wales seaboards.	Salinous; excellent forage.
Hairy-fruited salt bush.	Kochia ciliata.....	Arid interior New South Wales and South Australia.	Grows in most adverse droughts; stock like it.
Hairy heads	Trichinium erubescens.	Arid interior New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia.	Sheep fond of it; withstands spells of drought.
Hairy-podded cress	Blennodia lacsiocarpa .	Peculiar to Darling, Murray rivers, and generally central plains.	Eaten by all herbivora and annually grows during hottest part of year.
Halbert-leaved salt bush.	Rhagodia nastata.....	Queensland, New South Wales and Victoria.	Its white foliage is to be seen when all other vegetation dried up; will not grow on swamp land.
Half-berried salt bush .	Atriplex omibaccata .	All the colonies.....	Valuable for sheep, but getting scarce.

Native and exotic grasses and forage plants—Continued.

FORAGE PLANTS—Continued.

Common name.	Botanical name.	Where found.	Remarks.
Halimus-like salt bush.	Atriplex halimoides...	Peculiar to northwest of Bogan and Darling, New South Wales, Burnett and Bogan, Queensland, Wimmera, Victoria, Murray, South Australia.	Rabbits and overstocked runs rendered it scarce; cure for fluke and distoma diseases in sheep.
Hog weed	Bœrhaavia diffusa.....	All colonies except Tasmania.	Valuable pasture; resists severe droughts. In India roots used as a laxative and vermifuge.
Hop bush.....	Dodonœa attenuata...	Arid central plains of continent.	Resource during droughts; grows on sandy soil.
Horse-radish tree.....	Codonocarpus cotinifolius.	Arid interiors of Northwest and South Australia and sandy soils of New South Wales.	Remarkably drought enduring; cattle and sheep like its pungent taste; stronger than water cress.
Kidney-fruited salt bush.	Atriplex stipitata.....	New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia.	Yearly becoming scarcer.
Kurrajong.....	Sterculia diversifolia..	Hilly country of interior.	Grows to 60 feet high on eastern slope of dividing range; roots eat like sweet turnips; gives considerable water.
Leopard or spotted tree.	Flinderaia maculosa...	Peculiar to western plains of Lachlan and Darling, New South Wales, Burdekin and Burnett, and Port Bowen, Queensland.	Sheep eat leaves and young twigs; is cut down during droughts, hence becoming scarce.
Linear-leaved jasmine .	Jasminum lineare	Interior of all colonies ..	Much sought by all stock in dry seasons.
Nuellers salt bush.....	Blennodia filifolia	Peculiar to plains between Lachland and Darling, New South Wales; extends to South Australia.	Cattle and sheep fond of pungent flavor denoted by its name.
Mustard bush	Atriplex muelleri	All interior of Australia.	Sheep very fond of it, eating down to ground.
Nardoo	Marsilea drummondii .	.....do	Grows on margins of swamps; has no true seed spores; very nutritious forage.
Native carrot.....	Daucus brachiatus	.....do	Sheep thrive well on it; burrs adhere to fleeces.
Native peach or quandong.	Fusanus acuminatus..	Arid interior New South Wales, Victoria, South and West Australia.	Grows 20 to 30 feet high; sheep fond of foliage; valuable forage during droughts.
New Zealand spinach or warrigal cabbage.	Tetragonia expansa ...	From ocean to arid interior of nearly all the continent.	Grows in driest weather; is a good garden vegetable and pasture for sheep.
Nodding salt bush.....	Rhagodia nutans.....	.....do	Great favorite with sheep.
Old-man salt bush	Rhagodia parabolica ..	Interior Queensland, New South Wales, South Australia.	Mealy white in appearance; useful forage growing; scarce from overstocking, etc.
Orobus-like swainsona.	Swiansona oroboides ..	Warwick, Queensland, and parts New South Wales.	Tender herbage during drought for sheep.
Oval-podded cress	Thlaspi cochlearinum.	West boundary of New South Wales; rare in South Australia.	Grows on sand hills; slightly pungent.
Phaca-like swainsona..	Swainsona phacoidos..	All Australian colonies.	Good for sheep with other herbage; alone is liable to "blow them."
Pin bush.....	Hakea leucoptera	Arid interior New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, South Australia.	Cattle and sheep eat seedling 6 inches to 1 foot high; nothing checks its growth; roots give good drinking water.
Pinnate-leaved mustard bush.	Blennodia nasturtioides	Peculiar to inundated lands of Lachland and West Plains of New South Wales, Murray in Victoria, and South Australia.	Sheep very fond of it, but it has a pungent flavor.

Native and exotic grasses and forage plants—Continued.

FORAGE PLANTS—Continued.

Common name.	Botanical name.	Where found.	Remarks.
Purity	Cassia artemisioides	Interior Queensland, South Australia, New South Wales.	Good forage; never af fected by drought.
Purslane	Portulaca oleracea	All Australian colonies.	It possesses antiscorbuti properties; seed col lected by the aborig nals for food; succulen stems relished by stock
Red-fruited hop bush	Dodonæa lobulata	Central Australia and South and West Australia.	Sheep will stand up to ge at it; not affected b climatic changes.
Rib grass or variable plantain.	Plantago varia	Arid portions of all colonies.	Relished by sheep; unde sirable on rich land, as i destroys tender grasses
Rough-leaved goose-foot.	Chenopodium carinatum.	Throughout all colonies.	When young, tender hert age for sheep.
Round-leaved salt bush.	Atriplex nummularia	Peculiar to parts of New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, and South Australia.	Highly drought-resisting scarce through over stocking.
Sheep bush, Wilga willow.	Geijera parviflora	Arid interiors of all colonies.	Grows 30 feet high; shee particularly partial to.
Short-leaved salt bush	Kochia brevifolia	In portions of all colonies.	Good forage in dries seasons.
Short-winged salt bush	Kochia brachyptera	Interior of Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia.	Salinous plant; no favorit with sheep.
Silky salt bush	Kochia villosa	Peculiar to certain districts of all colonies.	Salinous plant; scarc through consumption b sheep, etc.
Silver bush	Trichinium obovatum	Arid interior of all colonies.	Not plentiful; sheep relis it greatly.
Silver salt bush	Atriplex rhagodioides	Central plains of all colonies.	Becoming scarce; shee relish it greatly.
Slender-fruited salt bush.	Atriplex leptocarpa	New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia.	Great drought endurance sheep relish it greatly.
Small-leaved goose-foot.	Chenopodium microphyllum.	In New South Wales, near boundary of and in Victoria.	Excellent fodder for shee slightly salinous.
Spiked mallow	Malvastrum spicatum	New South Wales, Queensland, North and South Australia.	Much esteemed by pastr ralists.
Spreading salt bush	Atriplex limbata	Only between Lachlan and Darling rivers, New South Wales.	Remarkably drought-e during; salinous; fa disappearing, owing rabbits, etc.
Star-fruited bush	Kochia stelligera	Peculiar to arid plains and sand hills, New South Wales and west parts of Queensland.	Not very plentiful; muc liked by all herbivora.
Sturt's cotton plants	Gossypium sturtii	Arid interior New South Wales, Queensland.	Flourishes in driest sea sons.
Sugar gum	Eucalyptus corynocalyx.	South Australia and Northwestern Victoria.	Attains height of 120 fee herbivora very fond its sweet foliage.
Sweet-fruited myoporum.	Myoporum deserti	Interior all colonies	Fruit formerly food sup ply of aboriginals; goo forage in times of scar city.
Three-leaved mustard bush.	Blennodia trisecta	Interior New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia.	Sheep like it for its pur gency.
Trailing swainsona	Swainsona procumbens.	Interior New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland.	Good with other herbage but liable to "blow."
Two-spined salt bush	Sclerolæna diacantha.	Interior all colonies	Salinous plant of value fast disappearin through overstocking rabbits, etc.
Woolly-fruited salt bush.	Kochia eriantha	Arid central plains of all colonies.	Not affected by heat, cold or drought; rich, succu lent forage for sheep, etc

WEEDS.

The total number of noxious weeds growing in this colony has not yet been fully ascertained, the director of agriculture being still engaged in investigating this subject. For this purpose pastoralists and farmers have been invited to send specimens of all supposed poisonous plants to the department for test, as there are many contradictory reports respecting certain plants, some asserting that they are poisonous, others that they are excellent fodder. *Eremophilia* and *Myoporum* are cases in point, as where these shrubs grow abundantly sheep are said to eat them with relish, and at the time of fruit-bearing many birds support life on them.

When sheep die from some unknown cause it is often concluded that they have fed on a poisonous plant which, on examination, proves harmless. Death, very likely, has resulted from laryngitis, or inflamation of the intestines, or from overfeeding on leguminous plants with seed on them, causing distension of the stomach, whence choking of the lungs and strangulation.

The following are some of the leading noxious weeds:

Trefoil burr grows to a considerable extent in 15 districts; to a very large degree in 20 others, and slightly in 11, whilst none is reported in 17 districts. Variegated thistle is found to a slight extent in 23 districts, largely in 12, in considerable quantities in 16, whilst 12 are entirely free from it.

Black thistle pervades 17 districts to a very great extent; slightly in 18 others; 17 have it in considerable quantities, and 11 are not subject to it.

Bathurst burr infests 14 districts to a very large extent; is found extensively in 16, and but slightly in 21; in 12 it has no existence. This weed in particular is the source of great losses to traveling stock.

Darling pea and roley-poley grow in a few districts and other noxious weeds occur slightly in 21 and largely in 18 districts. They are found in considerable quantities in 14, but 10 districts do not suffer from this infliction.

A noxious native grass is found in the Cobar district, 494 miles west of Sydney. Its prolific seeding power contributes in a great degree to the depreciation of the wool of that district and is the cause of a very large loss to the flocks. Cattle and sheep, moving through it, rub off these seeds, which adhere closely and do not fall off when dry or by the action of wind or rain. Locally it is called "No. 9 grass," because it is of the diameter of No. 9 wire; but it is commonly known as "Three-awned spear grass" (see preceding tables). It is most destructive when the sheep are full fleeced in winter, as the seeds then, of course, adhere more easily, and it is by no means extraordinary to see shearers in oil-skins as a protection against these seeds. The only way to eradicate

this grass is to hoe up the tussocks and burn them when dry, thu creasing the value of the wool and saving the lives of numbers of sh In my remarks in the tabular forms I have noted such plants as dangerous to sheep and wool, but I have no means of ascertaining v percentage of loss may be attributed to this cause.

Five hundred and one thousand five hundred and seventy-two pou have been expended for the removal of noxious weeds in the col namely: From commons, £306,080; police paddocks, £2,797; trave stock, reserves, and droving roads, £192,695; total, £501,572.

RAINFALL IN 1891.

The following is the record of rainfall during 1891 at some of chief centers of districts supervised by foresters:

Name of place.	Rainfall.	Name of place.	Ra
	Inches.		*In*
Armidale	36.20	Grenfell	
Bega	59.78	Kempsey	
Booral	58.00	Lismore	
Bowral	53.42	Moama	
Broken Hill (May-December)	4.94	Mudgee	
Bourke	25.10	Murwillumbah	
Casino	49.85	Narrabri	
Condobolin	26.05	Narrandera	
Coonamble	28.71	Penrith	
Cowra	37.09	Port Macquarie	
Deniliquin	21.12	Quirindi	
Dubbo	27.21	Singleton	
Eden	58.95	Tenterfield	
Fernmount	85.66	Tocumwal	
Glen Innes	35.89	Wagga Wagga	
Gosford	57.96	West Maitland	
Grafton	44.07	Wilcannia	

FOREST RESERVES OF NEW SOUTH WALES.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Arrawata	Weean...?	Inverell	958	Mount Gagan	A	1,600	Ironbark and pine of fair quality.
Do	Bonshaw	Inverell and Tenterfield.	1,336		A	5,950	Ironbark, red gum, box, apple, pine, and blood-wood.
Ashburnham	Mandagery and Murga	Molong	4		A	3,915	Ironbark and stringy bark.
Do	Gunningbland and Nelungalong.	Parkes	1,147		A	3,500	Pine—good quality.
Do	Terrara, Coonambra, Bendogandri, and Bunbury.	Forbes, Parkes, and Molong.	1,403		A	12,396¼	Ironbark and stringy bark.
Do	Dulladerry, Terrara, and Bunbury.	Molong and Parkes	1,730		A	6,500	Do.
Do	Dulladerry and Terrara	Molong	1,731		A	2,300	Do.
Do	Waugan	Forbes	2,030		C	190	Red gum and yellow box.
Do	Troubalgi, Dowling, and Wise.	do	2,048		A	16,300	Pine—good quality.
Do	Mogong and Gonimbla	Molong	3,813		A	9,670	Ironbark, stringy bark, box, and pine.
Do	Forbes	Forbes	4,335		A	410	Also for traveling stock and camping.
Do	Murga	Molong	11,412		A	460	This is in effect an extension of No. 4.
Do	Waugan	Forbes	12,496		A	320	Red gum and box.
Do	Nangar	Molong	13,687		A	3,000	Stringy bark, ironbark, box, and red pine.
Ashburnham and Cunningham.	Yarragoing, Corridgery, and Ganning.	Forbes	7,969		A	980	Red gum and pine.
Argyle	Currowang	Goulburn	151		A	365	White and brittle gum, stringy bark, and apple tree. Firewood reserve.
Do	Cookbundoon and Eden Forrest.	do	225		A	6,340	Stringy bark, mountain ash, blue, gray, red, and brittle gums, box, and peppermint.
Do	Bungonia	do	1,999		A	3,160	Stringy bark and blue gum.
Do	Towrang	do	5,051			36	Reserve for planting.
Do	Tarlo	do	12,756		A	1,600	Stringy bark, red gum, and mountain ash.
Argyle and Murray	Merrigan Mulwaree	Goulburn and Queenbeyan.	170		A	3,195½	Gum, stringy bark, and mountain ash.
Auckland	Yowaka	Eden	1		A	720	Mountain ash, stringy bark, black butt, blood-wood, and black and red pine.
Do	Bimmil	do	15		A	60	Mountain ash, stringy bark, black butt, and blood wood; also reserve for public recreation.
Do	Pericoe	do	16		A	536	Ribbon gum, mountain ash, stringy bark, and box.
Do	Yowaka and Bimmil	do	774		A	2,375	Black butt, wolly butt, gray gum, mountain ash, and blood wood.
Do	Bournda	Bega	825		A	350	Blood wood, stringy bark, black butt, black ash, wolly butt, white gum, honeysuckle, and she oak.

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Auckland	Colombo	Bega	911	Glenbog	A	7,000	Mountain ribbon and white gum, messmate, wolly butt, stringy bark, and silver wattle.
Do	Werriberri	do	991	Werriberri	C	1,000	Ribbon and mountain gum, stringy bark, and mountain ash.
Do	Mumbulla, Bega, and Brogo	do	996	Brogo River	C	350	River oak in the bed of the Brogo River.
Do	Mumbulla	do	1,003		C	2,920½	Stringy bark, white gum, box, peppermint, spotted gum, ironbark, river oak, and wattle.
Do	Brogo	do	1,012		A	319	Stringy bark, apple tree, red gum, and ribbon box.
Do	Wyndham and Yurammie	Eden and Bega	8,559	Myrtle Creek	A	2,027	Mountain ash, messmate, blue gum, stringy bark, cat-tail ash, and mountain gum.
Do	Gnupa	Eden	8,827		A	3,650	Mountain ash, messmate, mountain gum, stringy bark, and box.
Do	Numbugga	Bega	10,989		A	270	
Do	do	do	10,990		A	530	
Auckland and Wellesley.	Mila, Lawson, Gulgin, and Bondi.	Eden and Bombala	385	Mila	A and C	5,720	Mountain ash, ribbon and white gum, messmate, and peppermint; 1,200 acres under Class C.
Do	Bredbendoura, Mogila, Cathcart, and Crewah.	Bombala and Bega	1,045		A	11,800	Messmate, white gum, ribbon gum, cat-tail, white ash, hickory, and black and silver wattle.
Baradine	Gora and Rundle	Coonabarabran	9	Gora	A	8,320	Ironbark, pine, and box.
Do	Teni, Talluba, Minnon, Moglewit, Bullirawa, Merimborough, and Tunis.	Narrabri	1,272		A	46,896	Ironbark and pine.
Do	Yarrigan	Coonabarabran	1,872		A	2,600	Do.
Do	Minnon, Dubbo, Merimborough, Etso, Cubbo, Bandio, Boorimah, and Duneverian.	Narrabri	4,522		A	61,800	Ironbark, pine, and oak.
Barnadine and Leichhardt.	Tennibri, Teridgerie, White, Miller, Urawilkie, Urawilkie North, Ceelnoy, Merebene, Gidgenbar, Terembone, Walcha, Ginee, Yarraman, Gwabegar, Bulliroy, Yarren, Midgee, and Wambadule.	Coonrbarabran, Coonamble, and Narrabri	1,430	Ceelnoy	A	287,720	Ironbark and pine.
Baradine and White	Merimboro, Bundill, Dunwerian, Coghill and Moberoi.	Narrabri	8		A	23,040	Ironbark, pine, and oak.

	Coghill, Cook, Anson, Nuable, Dampier, Crowie, Quin, Bohena and Boral.						
Bathurst	Lucan and Wangoola	Cowra and Carcoar	84		A	3,300	Stringy bark, blue gum, and box.
Do	Wangoola	Cowra	87		A	985	Stringy bark.
Do	Bracebridge	Carcoar	91		A	2,400	Stringy bark, mountain gum, box, and apple tree.
Do	Galbraith, Lowrie and Caloola.	Bathurst	179		A	862	Stringy bark.
Do	Tintern	Cowra	184	Pine Mount	C	2,923	Pine—good quality.
Do	do	do	3,814		A	744	Stringy bark, gum, box, and apple.
Do	do	do	4,376		A	40	Stringy bark.
Do	Milburn	do	8,873		A	40	Adjoins Forest Reserve 184.
Benarba	Banarway	Moree	814	Keelo	C	2,500	Pine and carbene.
Do	Caidmurra and Myall	do	1,297		A	700	Pine, bloodwood, and carbene.
Do	Boonery	do	1,381		A	1,400	Pine, gum, and bloodwood.
Do	do	do	1,362		A	1,291	Do.
Do	Umbri	do	5,362		A	1,552	Pine.
Benarba and Stapylton	Bundora, Newcastle, Kunopia, Tyrell, Boronga, Paleranga, and Willimil.	do	2,122		A	22,800	Pine and bloodwood.
Beresford	Wolumla and Bingiera	Cooma	10		A	2,050	Cabbage gum, peppermint, oak, and pine.
Do	Cooma and The Brothers	do	157	Cooma	A	1,769½	White gum and box.
Do	Murrumbucca	do	266	Murrumbucca	C	960	White gum, apple tree, and pine.
Do	Bulgandramine	do	287	Bulgandramine	C	2,500	Cabbage and white gum.
Do	Callaghan	do	397		A	240	Peppermint and white gum.
Do	Gladstone	do	438A		C	20½	
Do	Dangelong	do	460		A	195	Cabbage gum.
Do	Colringdon	do	622		A	1,116	White gum, peppermint and box.
Do	Umaralla	do	653		A	1,200	White gum, peppermint, and pine.
Do	Dangelong	do	716		A	1,019	Cabbage and white gum.
Do	Montagu	do	717		A	534	Do.
Do	Big Badja	do	9,943		A	660	Cat-tail, mountain ash, and gum.
Do	Kydra	do	12,050		A	960	Gum and messmate.
Do	Montagu	do	12,540		A	470	Gum.
Beresford and Wallace.	Jillimatong and Bradley	do	1,016		A	2,350	White gum and peppermint.
Bland	Warralonga	Grenfell	1,413	Warralonga	A	604½	Belar, white box, and Boree.
Do	Caragabal	do	1,460	Caragabal	A	570	Pine, bull oak, and box.
Do	Boonabah	do	1,574	Boonabah	A	512	Do.
Do	Wyrra, Bimbella, and Back Creek.	Forbes and Grenfell	1,825		A	5,480	Pine, ironbark, and red gum.
Do	Eurabba and Euroka	Grenfell	1,830A		A	3,260	Pine, bull oak, red gum, and box.
Do	Weedallion	Young	1,831	Weedallion	A	3,440	Pine, white box, red gum, and bull oak.
Do	Curraburrama	Grenfell	2,068		A	837	Pine.
Do	Minijary, Caragabel, and Jingerangle.	do	2,185		A	1,400	White box, belar, bull oak, and pine.
Do	Dingi Dingi and Stockinbingal.	Cootamundry	2,190		A	1,240	Pine.
Do	Caragabal and Berendebba	Grenfell	2,330		A	1,160	Pine, bull oak, and box.
Do	Yeral	Young	2,745		A	3,080	Pine, red gum, bull oak, and box.

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Bland	Wargin	Grenfell	2,864		A	724	Pine and red gum.
Do	Combaning and Trigalong	Cootamundry	3,056		A	2,033¼	Pine, white and yellow box, bull oak, and red gum.
Do	Back Creek	Grenfell	3,973	Back Creek	A	6,040	Pine.
Do	Marbunga and Wyalong South.	do	10,803		A	2,300	Ironbark.
Do	Wargin and Marbunga	do	10,804		A	1,680	Do.
Do	Wargin	do	10,805		A	460	Do.
Do	Culingeral, Wargin, and Mandamah.	do	10,806		A	1,180	Do.
Do	Thanowring	Cootamundry	11,454		A	400	Ironbark, box, stringy bark, gum, pine, and oak.
Do	Eurabba	Grenfell	12,039		A	280	Pine.
Do	Tumbleton	Cootamundry	12,311		A	222	Box.
Do	Congou	do	14,520		B	249	Pine, stringy bark, and box.
Bland and Bourke	Walladilly, Thanaring, Cullengeral, Ingalba, Northcote, Quandary and Langi-Kal-Kal.	Wagga Wagga and Cootamundry.	10,231		A	7,800	Ironbark.
Bland and Clarendon	Sebastopol, Trigalong, and Walladilly.	do	3,082		A	333	
Bland and Monteagle	Euroka, Narowie, Bimbi, and Weddin.	Grenfell	1,855	Weddin	C	34,560	Pine, ironbark, stringy bark, and red gum.
Bland and Harden	Congou and Jindalee	Cootamundry	1,274	Burthong	B	2,591½	Ironbark and stringy bark.
Bligh	Bobadeen	Cassilis	62	Bobadeen	A	882	Ironbark, box, stringy bark, and apple tree.
Do	Collaroy	do	110	Collaroy	A	400	Box, ironbark, and pine.
Do	do	do	111		A	700	Ironbark, box, and pine.
Do	Turil	do	124		A	2,248	Ironbark, box, stringy bark, and pine.
Do	Warung and Gunna	do	142		C	1,970	Red gum and stringy bark.
Do	Warung	do	143		C	2,150	Red gum, stringy bark, and wattle scrub.
Do	Mummurra	do	158		A	12,646	Ironbark, pine, red gum, and slaty gum.
Do	Worobil	Wellington	2,379		A	1,143	Box, ironbark, and red gum. Reserve for fuel.
Do	Warung	Cassilis	9,325		A	400	Stringy bark.
Bligh and Lincoln	Bolaro and Rouse	Dubbo and Cassilis	1,598		A	360	Box, ironbark, gum, and currajong.
Bligh, Pottinger, and Napier.	Brennan, Lowe, and Warung	Coonabarabran and Gunnedah.	646	Brennans Gap	C	5,440	Stringy bark.
Brisbane	Watt and Campbell	Cassilis	95A		C	3,602¾	Red gum, ironbark, box, pine, and currajong.
Do	Wentworth	do	96		A	1,358	White and yellow box, red gum, stringy bark,

Do	*Park*	*do*	221		A	1,800	Ironbark.
Do	*Wybong*	*do*	3,275		A	1,750	Ironbark, and gray box.
Do	Willis	Scone	13,888		A	630	Cedar, yellow wood, ironwood, stringy bark, apple, and box.
Brisbane, Buckland, and Parry.	Tarnell, Leder, Crawney, Temi, and Lincoln.	Murrurundi and Tamworth.	1,266	Crawney	A	10,581	Stringy bark.
Bourke	Yarrangerry	Wagga Wagga	1		C	640	Pine—This is in effect an extension of No. 3048.
Do	Cottee and Coolamon	do	24		C	6,998	Pine.
Do	Ganmain, Kockibitoo, and Hooke.	do	1,251	Ganmain	A & C	12,786	Pine and box; 9,246 acres, Class C.
Do	Elliott, Kockibitoo and Matong.	do	1,421	Matong	SF	13,280	Pine.
Do	Robertson	do	1,439	Currajong	C	25,555	Pine and white box.
Do	Ardlethan, Davidson and Ariah.	do	2,548	Clear Paddock	A	10,240	Pine.
Do	Ashbridge, Devlin and Dulah.	do	2,652	Dulah	A & C	61,873	Pine; 173 acres in Class A.
Do	Davidson, Kildary, and Langi-Kal-Kal.	do	2,761		A	7,400	Pine and white box.
Do	Beaconsfield and Trickett	do	2,784		B	8,440	Ironbark.
Do	Northcote and Ingalba	do	2,785		B	16,000	Do.
Do	Mandamah	do	2,786A		C	2,830	Pine.
Do	Ramsay and Yithan	do	3,041		A	6,600	Pine and ironbark.
Do	Yarrangery	do	3,048		C	3,901	Pine and white box.
Do	Ganmain	do	3,924		A	1,420	White and yellow box.
Do	Kindra and Berry Jerry	do	8,171		C	2,730	White and black pine and white and yellow box.
Do	Hook and Ganmain	do	9,035		C	6,115	Pine and box.
Do	Currawanna	do	9,453		A	830	Pine and white box.
Do	Buddigower	do	10,232		A	1,550	Ironbark.
Do	Kildary	do	10,233		A	1,070	Do.
Do	Clermiston	do	10,380		A	776	Ironbark and box.
Do	Ramsay and Yithan	Narrandera	12,531		A	2,500	Pine.
Do	Berrembed	do	13,101		A	1,840	
Do	Kildary	Wagga Wagga	13,812		A	330	Ironbark. In lieu of Forest Reserve No. 10234, canceled.
Do	Mandamah	do	13,958		C	1,624	Pine.
Do	do	do	13,959		C	960	Do.
Do	Davidson and Mandamah	do	14,519		C	6,600	Do.
Bourke and Cooper	Willandra and Jillett	Narrandera and Wagga Wagga.	1,654	Willandra	A	11,520	Do.
Burnett and Murchison	Adams, Dumboy, Delingera, and Wyndham.	Bingara and Warialda.	1,373	Generoi	A	30,000	Ironbark and pine.
Blaxland	Uranaway	Hilston North	3,556		A	1,200	Pine, box, and mallee.
Do	Creamy Hills and Moora	do	7,447		A	8,840	Pine and box.
Do	West Uabba	do	13,740		A	2,000	Pine.
Do	Illewong	do	14,145		A	1,200	Do.
Do	Meldior, Creamy Hills, and Moora.	Hillston	14,458		A	3,200	

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve. Number.	Reserve. Name.	Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
						Acres.	
Boyd	Uri	Narrandera	180		C	1,400	Red gum.
Do	Carabury	do	182		C	1,980	Do.
Do	Coleambally	do	1,731		C	1,000	Black and white pine and box.
Do	Argoon	do	1,754	Argoon, No. 1	C	1,082½	Do.
Do	Mycotha	do	1,755	Argoon, No. 2	C	640	Do.
Do	do	do	1,756	Argoon, No. 3	C	1,062½	Do.
Do	do	do	1,757	Argoon, No. 4	C	[illegible]	Do.
Do	do	do	1,780		A	9,715	Do.
Do	do	do	1,781		A	640	Do.
Do	Argoon	do	1,782		A	412½	Do.
Do	do	do	1,783		A	640	Do.
Do	Eunanbrennan	Hay	1,884		C	937	Box.
Do	Cararbury	Narrandera	1,905		A and C	2,[illegible]7	Red gum; 87 acres under Class A.
Do	Waddi	do	1,907		C	1,907½	Black and white pine and box.
Do	do	do	1,908		A	2,[illegible]	Pine and box.
Do	Roona	do	2,238		A	2,104	Black and white pine and box.
Do	Waddi	do	2,258		C	1,900	Red gum.
Do	Banandra	do	2,526		A	400	Black and white pine.
Do	Ourendumbee	do	2,527		A	640	Do.
Do	Burt	do	13,491		A	884	Red gum and pine.
Do	Tubbo	do	13,492		A	4,000	Do.
Do	Jurambula	do	13,493		A	977½	Do.
Do	Tubbo	do	13,494		A	517	Do.
Do	do	do	13,495		A	848	Do.
Do	Uroly	do	13,496		A	484	Do.
Do	Jurambula	do	14,156		A	240	Pine.
Buckland	Werrie	Tamworth	2,069		A	707	Ironbark.
Do	Coeypolly	do	14,004		A	1,600	Ironbark and pine.
Buckland and Parry	Carroll, Balbinboon, and Moorawarra.	Tamworth and Gunnedah.	5,098		A	1,600	Pine.
Buccleuch	Weejasper	Tumut and Yass	2,841	Weejasper	A	23,040	Mountain ash, stringy bark, black butt, ribbon and white gum, and box.
Do	Cooleman	Tumut	2,926	Cooleman	A	5,500	Messmate, stringy bark, spotted gum, white and cabbage gum, blackbally and cherry.
Do	Bramina	Queanbeyan	3,150		A	7,680	Stringy bark.
Do	Adjunbilly and Wyangle	Tumut	3,177	Red Hill	C	5,980½	Messmate, stringy bark, and ribbon gum
Do	Talbingo and Jounama	do	3,234		A	8,000	Messmate, curabble, stringy bark, ribbon gum, and apple tree.
Do	Nanangroo	Gundagai	8,091		A	160	
Do	The Peaks	Tumut	9,513		A	7,000	Mountain ash.
Do	Brungle	Gundagai and Tumut	[illegible]		[illegible]	60	

Buller	*Broomi, Moarimi, Burgess, Tooloom, Capeen, Claribil, and Pocupar.*	Tenterfield and Casino	4		A	6,700	Cedar, pine, etc.
Do	*Acacia Creek*	Tenterfield	500	Acacia Creek	A	1,200	Pine, red and gray gum, white and scrub box, oak, and peppermint.
Do	do	do	1,439A		A	5,800	Pine, stringy bark, blue and red gum, silky oak, and peppermint.
Do	Acacia, Gore, and Koreelah	do	14,150		A	16,000	Beech, sassafras, pine, coachwood, cedar, mahogany, ironbark, and blue and spotted gum.
Buller, Rous, and Drake	Mummulgum, Dryaa, Tonumbar, Babyl, Sherwood, Black Camp, Peacock, etc.	Casino	1,120	Hogarth Range	A	80,788	Ironbark, blue and red gum, tallowwood, bloodwood, and black butt.
Buller and Clive	Barney Downs and Boonoo Boonoo.	Tenterfield	1,624		A	3,200	Stringy bark, messmate, blue and red gum, white box, peppermint, and woolly butt.
Buller, Clive, and Drake	Cavendish, Timbarra, Girard, and West Fairfield.	Casino and Tenterfield	4,406		A	14,300	Woolly butt, messmate, stringy bark, gray, white, and red gum, sassafras, yellowwood, corkwood, and red cedar.
Cadell	Toorangabby and Perrricoota.	Deniliquin	2,420		A	1,450	Red gum.
Do	Moama and Bama	do	3,252	Backwater Creek	C	5,580	Do.
Do	Bama, Moira, and Gulpa	do	3,253	Moira	C and SF	36,728	Red gum; 12,510 acres, proclaimed as the Moira State Forest.
Do	Toorangabby, Tomara, Burrumbury, Tantonan, and Thule.	do	3,254	Moama	C	44,537	Red gum.
Do	Perricoota	do	3,255		C	810	Do.
Do	Moama	do	11,385			17	Reserve for planting.
Caira	Glen, Emu, and Yough	Balrandald	13,920		A	3,200	Box.
Camden	Wollongong	Wollongong	38A	Illawarra	C	580	Mountain ash and swamp mahogany.
Do	Burrawang	Berrima	43A		C	59	Woolly butt, white box, and turpentine.
Do	Jamberoo and Kiama	Kiama	78		C	202	Turpentine, messmate, and white box.
Do	Jamberoo	do	112		C	200	Do.
Do	Wallaya	Nowra	119	The Cliffs	C	4,840	Leather jacket, woolly butt, swamp mahogany, messmate, box, ribbon gum, cedar, and brush timbers.
Do	Bunberra	do	121A		C	110	Leather jacket, ash, beech, box, and brush timbers.
Do	Wallaya and Broughton	do	122	Brogers Creek	C	440	Leather jacket, messmate, woolly butt, box, sassafras, and brush timbers.
Do	Broughton	do	155		C	15	Leather jacket, sassafras, beech, messmate, woolly butt, and brush timbers.
Do	do	do	156		C	52	Do.
Do	do	do	157		C	60	Do.
Do	Yarrawa	Berrima	167		A	100	Box, messmate, beech, sassafras, and myrtle.
Do	Broughton and Wallaya	Kiama	168		C	2,968	Woolly butt, messmate, leather jacket, sassafras, box, and brush timbers.
Do	Cambewarra	Nowra	172		A	170	Leather jacket, turpentine, messmate, and brush timbers.
Do	do	do	173		C	100	Leather jacket, messmate, box, cedar, turpentine and brush timbers.
Do	Cambewarra and Bunberra	do	174		C	850	Leather jacket, sassafras, messmate, box, and brush timbers.

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Camden	Jamberoo and Kangaloon	Kiama and Berrima	175		C	1,600	Black butt and messmate.
Do	Burrawang	Berrima	177		A	105	Box and messmate.
Do	Kembla and Calderwood	Wollongong	179		A	100	Messmate and mountain ash.
Do	Calderwood	do	180		A	120	Messmate, sassafras, beech, and brush timbers.
Do	do	do	181		A	320	White box, messmate, sassafras, beech, and sallywood.
Do	Yarrawa	Berrima	184		A	7a. 24p.	Brush timbers; also for public recreation.
Do	Cambewara	Nowra	197		A	23a. 16p.	Do.
Do	Wallaya	do	199		A	50	White box and messmate.
Do	do	do	200		A	60	Do.
Do	Kiama	Kiama	201		A	100	Turpentine, messmate, and white box.
Do	Kangaloon	Berrima	202		A	150	Black but and messmate.
Do	Bugong	Nowra	203		A	250	Leather jacket, messmate, box, turpentine, woolly butt, cedar, and brush timbers.
Do	Burrawang	Berrima	204		A	250	White box, messmate, and brush timbers.
Do	do	do	205		A	300	Peppermint, mountain ash, white box, and messmate
Do	Yarrawa	do	206		A	325	Do.
Do	Bugong and Cambewarra	Nowra	207		A	650	Turpentine, box, messmate, ironbark, woolly butt, and stringy bark.
Do	Cambewarra	do	209		C	1,000	Messmate, box, cedar, woolly butt, turpentine, and brush timbers.
Do	Illaroo	do	211		A	34	Messmate, stringy bark, woolly butt, turpentine, and brush timbers.
Do	Yarrawa	Berrima	216		A	4a. 37p.	Brush timbers.
Do	Bugong	Nowra	218		A	45	Do.
Do	Cambewarra	do	219		A	50	Messmate, gum, turpentine, and brush timbers.
Do	Wallaya	do	220		C	375	Swamp mahogany, woolly butt, ribbon gum, and brush timbers.
Do	Burrawang	Berrima	231		C	370	Gray gum, bloodwood, and white gum.
Do	Cambewarra	Nowra	5,658		C	490	Brush timbers.
Do	Wollongong	Wollongong	6,503		C	120	Scrub; also for ferry purposes.
Do	Burragorang and Killawarrah.	Picton	14,162		A	11,620	Ironbark, blue gum, etc.
Clarence	Stuart and Lawrence	Grafton	24		A	2,500	Blue and spotted gum, oak, ironbark, black-

	[illegible], Lawrence, and Ashley.	do	242	Lawrence	C	11,100	Ironbark, spotted gum, black butt, gray gum, stringy bark, bloodwood, mahogany, flooded gum, and beech.
Do	Tindale and Coldstream	do	243	Coldstream	C	7,600	Spotted gum, black butt, ironbark, mahogany, tallowwood, and bloodwood.
Do	Glen Ugie	do	244A	Glen Ugie	C	7,676	Oak, tea tree, spotted gum, ironbark, gray gum, box, bloodwood, and mahogany.
Do	Great Marlow	do	260	Alumy Creek	C	71	Ironbark, tallowwood, beech, mahogany, and gray gum.
Do	Southgate	do	353	Southgate	C	4,480	Ironbark, spotted and gray gum, bloodwood, tallowwood, and blackbutt.
Do	Elland and Lanitza	do	406A	Clarenza	B	3,921	Spotted gum, box, ironbark, red and gray gum.
Do	Woodford	do	979	Woodford Island	A	740	Box, bloodwood, mahogany, ironbark, tallowwood, and spotted gum.
Do	Richmond	do	1,039		A	560	
Do	Chapman	do	2,123	Coalbrook	C	9,250¾	Ironbark, red and spotted gum, black butt, bloodwood, stringy bark, and flooded gum.
Clarence and Richmond	Banyabba, Camira and Myall	Grafton and Casino	27		A	2,520	Blue gum, spotted gum, stringy bark, and bloodwood.
Do	Banyabba, Richmond, Woombah, Gibberagee, Ashby, and Myall.	do	1,101	Richmond Range	A	19,016	Spotted gum, ironbark, stringy bark, black butt, gray gum, tallowwood, mahogany, and bloodwood.
Clarke	Rampsbeck, Allingham, Aberfoyle, and Kangaroo.	Armidale	886		A	1,280	Stringy bark.
Do	Nowland and Warner	do	967		A	1,650	Do.
Do	Avondale	do	1,051		A	1,720	Do.
Do	Big Hill, George, Clarke, Styx, Jegola, Serpentine, and Cunnewarra.	do	1,662		C	45,000	Stringy bark, messmate, tallowwood, blue, spotted, and gray gum, cedar, and brush timbers.
Do	Snowy and Serpentine	do	1,663		C	17,000	Stringy bark, black butt, and blue gum.
Do	Dyke and Big Hill	do	10,991		A	315	Cedar.
Do	Mowles	do	10,992		A	5,760	Do.
Do	George	do	10,993		A	13,600	Do.
Cooper	Euratha and Munduburra	Narrandera	1		A	11,709	Black and white pine and box.
Do	Grong Grong	do	310	Bundidgerie	C	1,600	Red gum and box.
Do	Bolaro	do	1,881		C	3,240	Black and white pine.
Do	Sandy Creek	do	2,211		A	14,720	Do.
Do	Jondaryn and Wyangan	do	2,382		A	5,700	Pine, box, and bull oak.
Do	Bingar, Binya, and Stanbridge.	do	2,740	Binya	C	29,360	Pine.
Do	Coolaragang and Cuba	do	2,984	Darlington	C	1,020	Red gum.
Do	Cuba and Hulong	do	2,985	Hulong	C	5,098	Red gum and box.
Do	Dallas	do	2,986	Dairy Point East	C	300	Red gum.
Do	Dallas, Gogeldrie, and Yarangery.	do	2,987	Gogeldrie	C	6,560	Red gum and box.
Do	Yarangery	do	2,988	Yarangery	C	3,340	Do.
Do	Coolaragang	do	2,992	Cuba	C	880	Red gum.
Do	Dallas	do	2,993	Dairy Point	C	2,200	Do.
Do	Yalgogoring	do	3,032		C	3,200	Pine.
Do	do	do	3,033		C	1,300	Do.
Do	Bolaro	do	3,035		C	1,350	Do.

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Cooper	Bolaro	Narrandera	3,036		C	4,200	Pine.
Do	Barralong	do	3,037		C	3,200	Do.
Do	Conapaira	do	4,157		A	605	Do.
Do	Sim's Gap	do	4,158		A	840	Do.
Do	Conapaira East	do	4,159		A	1,920	Do.
Do	Conapaira South	do	4,160		A	3,600	Do.
Do	Conapaira, Conapaira East, and Conapaira South.	do	4,161		A	3,840	Do.
Do	Cudgel	do	13,135		A	1,080	Pine and red gum; land suitable for planting.
Do	Bolaro	do	13,511		C	973	Pine.
Do	do	do	13,512		C	2,985	Do.
Cooper and Gipps	Narriah, Wallandry North, and Brolga.	Narrandera and Hillston.	13,047		A	2,940	Ironbark, box, and sandalwood.
Clarendon	Sebastopol	Wagga Wagga	3,081		A	40	Box.
Harden and Clarendon	Burra, Muttama, Ulandra, and Mitta Mitta.	Cootamundry and Gundagai.	2,284	Mitta Mitta	C	1,920	Stringy bark and white box.
Do	Bongongalong and North Gundagai.	Gundagai	2,693		A	320	White box, stringy bark, and apple tree.
Cook	Irvine	Windsor	33		C	158	Mountain ash, black butt, gum, ironbark, and stringy bark.
Do	do	do	201		C	61	Mountain ash, peppermint, gray gum, sassafras, and stringy bark.
Do	do	do	202		C	28	Mountain ash, sassafras, stringy bark, and peppermint.
Do	Strathdon and Warragamba.	Penrith	1,966		A	4,600	Ironbark, mahogany, turpentine, and stringy bark.
Do	Strathdon	do	6,260		A	952	Within boundaries of Forest Reserve No. 1966.
Do	do	do	8,283		A	730	Do.
Do	Kurrajong and Burralow	do	10,083		A	2,560	
Conrallie	Weah Waa	Moree	4		A	50	
Do	Bundoowithidee	do	948		C	800	Pine.
Do	Weebullabulla	do	949		A	1,556	Do.
Do	Carore	do	1,059		C	2,700	Pine and box.
Do	Weah Waa	do	1,300		A	2,200	Pine, box, and brigalow.
Do	Terry-hie-hie, Downs, and Pringle.	Bingara	2,335	Terrie-hie-hie	A	18,500	Pine and ironbark.
Do	Berrygill and Perrergee	do	2,336		A	7,500	Do.

Do	Merimboro, Balmore, Capp, Coghill, Cook, Anson, Nable, Dampier, Crowie, Quin, Bohena and Boral.	do	1,273	Robertson	C	137,000	Do.
Bathurst	Lucan and Wangoola	Cowra and Carcoar	84		A	3,300	Stringy bark, blue gum, and box.
Do	Wangoola	Cowra	87		A	985	Stringy bark.
Do	Bracebridge	Carcoar	91		A	2,400	Stringy bark, mountain gum, box, and apple tree.
Do	Galbraith, Lowrie and Caloola.	Bathurst	179		A	862	Stringy bark.
Do	Tintern	Cowra	184	Pine Mount	C	2,928	Pine—good quality.
Do	do	do	3,814		A	744	Stringy bark, gum, box, and apple,
Do	do	do	4,376		A	40	Stringy bark.
Do	Milburn	do	8,873		A	40	Adjoins Forest Reserve 184.
Benarba	Banarway	Moree	814	Keelo	C	2,500	Pine and carbene.
Do	Caidmurra and Myall	do	1,297		A	700	Pine, bloodwood, and carbene.
Do	Boonery	do	1,381		A	1,400	Pine, gum, and bloodwood.
Do	do	do	1,382		A	1,291	Do.
Do	Umbri	do	5,362		A	1,552	Pine.
Benarba and Stapylton	Bundora, Newcastle, Kunopia, Tyrell, Boronga, Paleranga, and Willimll.	do	2,122		A	22,800	Pine and bloodwood.
Beresford	Wolumla and Bingiera	Cooma	10		A	2,050	Cabbage gum, peppermint, oak, and pine.
Do	Cooma and The Brothers	do	157	Cooma	A	1,769½	White gum and box.
Do	Murrumbucca	do	266	Murrumbucca	C	960	White gum, apple tree, and pine.
Do	Bulgandramine	do	287	Bulgandramine	C	2,500	Cabbage and white gum.
Do	Callaghan	do	397		A	240	Peppermint and white gum.
Do	Gladstone	do	438A		C	20½	
Do	Dangelong	do	460		A	195	Cabbage gum.
Do	Colringdon	do	622		A	1,116	White gum, peppermint and box.
Do	Umaralla	do	653		A	1,200	White gum, peppermint, and pine.
Do	Dangelong	do	716		A	1,019	Cabbage and white gum.
Do	Montagu	do	717		A	534	Do.
Do	Big Badja	do	9,943		A	660	Cat-tail, mountain ash, and gum.
Do	Kydra	do	12,050		A	960	Gum and mesamate.
Do	Montagu	do	12,540		A	470	Gum.
Beresford and Wallace	Jillimatong and Bradley	do	1,016		A	2,350	White gum and peppermint.
Bland	Warralonga	Grenfell	1,413	Warralonga	A	604½	Belar, white box, and Boree.
Do	Caragabal	do	1,460	Caragabal	A	570	Pine, bull oak, and box.
Do	Boonabah	do	1,574	Boonabah	A	512	Do.
Do	Wyrra, Bimbella, and Back Creek.	Forbes and Grenfell	1,825		A	5,480	Pine, ironbark, and red gum.
Do	Eurabba and Euroka	Grenfell	1,830A		A	3,260	Pine, bull oak, red gum, and box.
Do	Weedallion	Young	1,831	Weedallion	A	3,440	Pine, white box, red gum, and bull oak.
Do	Curraburrama	Grenfell	2,068		A	837	Pine.
Do	Minijary, Caragabel, and Jingerangle.	do	2,185		A	1,400	White box, belar, bull oak, and pine.
Do	Dingi Dingi and Stockinbingal.	Cootamundry	2,190		A	1,240	Pine.
Do	Caragabal and Berendebba	Grenfell	2,330		A	1,160	Pine, bull oak, and box.
Do	Yerai	Young	2,745		A	3,080	Pine, red gum, bull oak, and box.

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve. Number.	Reserve. Name.	Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
						Acres.	
Auckland	Colombo	Bega	911	Glenbog	A	7,000	Mountain ribbon and white gum, messmate, wolly butt, stringy bark, and silver wattle.
Do	Werriberri	do	991	Werriberri	C	1,000	Ribbon and mountain gum, stringy bark, and mountain ash.
Do	Mumbulla, Bega, and Brogo	do	996	Brogo River	C	350	River oak in the bed of the Brogo River.
Do	Mumbulla	do	1,003		C	2,920½	Stringy bark, white gum, box, peppermint, spotted gum, ironbark, river oak, and wattle.
Do	Brogo	do	1,012		A	319	Stringy bark, apple tree, red gum, and ribbon box.
Do	Wyndham and Yurammie	Eden and Bega	8,559	Myrtle Creek	A	2,027	Mountain ash, messmate, blue gum, stringy bark, cat-tail ash, and mountain gum.
Do	Gnupa	Eden	8,827		A	3,650	Mountain ash, messmate, mountain gum, stringy bark, and box.
Do	Numbugga	Bega	10,989		A	270	
Do	do	do	10,990		A	530	
Auckland and Wellesley.	Mila, Lawson, Gulgin, and Bondi.	Eden and Bombala	385	Mila	A and C	5,720	Mountain ash, ribbon and white gum, messmate, and peppermint; 1,200 acres under Class C.
Do	Bredbendoura, Mogila, Cathcart, and Crewah.	Bombala and Bega	1,045		A	11,800	Messmate, white gum, ribbon gum, cat-tail, white ash, hickory, and black and silver wattle.
Baradine	Gora and Rundle	Coonabarabran	9	Gora	A	8,320	Ironbark, pine, and box.
Do	Teni, Talluba, Minnon, Moglewit, Bullirawa, Merimborough, and Tunis.	Narrabri	1,272		A	46,896	Ironbark and pine.
Do	Yarrigan	Coonabarabran	1,872		A	2,600	Do.
Do	Minnon, Dubbo, Merimborough, Etso, Cubbo, Bandio, Boorimah, and Duneverian.	Narrabri	4,522		A	61,800	Ironbark, pine, and oak.
Barnadine and Leichhardt.	Tennibri, Teridgerie, White, Miller, Urawilkie, Urawilkie North, Ceelnoy, Merebene, Gidgenbar, Terembone, Walcha, Ginee, Yarraman, Gwabegar, Bulirey, Yarren, Midgee, and Wambadule.	Coonrbarabran, Coonamble, and Narrabri	1,430	Ceelnoy	A	287,720	Ironbark and pine.
Baradine and White	Merimboro, Bundill, Dunwerian, Coghill and Moberot.	Narrabri	8		A	23,040	Ironbark, pine, and oak.

Do	Wardry	Condobolin	14,281		A	640	Do.
Do	Carilla	Hillston	14,509		A	1,280	Do.
Do	Yelkin	do	14,547		A	2,100	Do.
Do	Tooronga and Cargelligo	do	14,548		A	2,520	Do.
Drake	Timbarra	Casino	248	Timbarra	C	31,360	Stringy bark, red gum, ironbark, messmate, bloodwood, box, and mountain ash.
Do	Mookimer and Rodham	do	537	Mount Neville	C	38,400	Red gum, bloodwood, ironbark, stringy bark, yellow box, green wattle, forest oak, beech, apple-tree, tallowwood, and brush timbers.
Do	Alice	do	913		A	500	Stringy bark, yellow box, ironbark, bloodwood, red gum, forest oak, mahogany, and black butt.
Do	Picarbin	do	929		A	80	Red and white gum, stringy bark, black butt, apple-tree, yellow box, ironbark, forest oak, mahogany, and tea tree.
Do	Albert and Richmond	Glen Innes	6,264		A	9,005½	Cedar, beech, sassafras, tallowwood, rosewood, brown and blue gum, and scrub box.
Do	Puhoi and Cangi	do	6,360		A	18,000	
Do	Coombadjha, Dandahra, Albert, and Richmond.	do	9,999		A	4,250	Red cedar, beech, sassafras, coachwood, tallow, myrtle, scrub box, ironbark, and stringy bark.
Do	Dandahra	do	11,111		A	900	In lieu of Forest Reserve No. 6368.
Do	Rodgers	do	11,452		A	9,800	Cedar; land suitable for planting.
Do	do	do	11,453		A	40	Do.
Drake and Richmond	Pickapene, Coongbar, Alice, Wyon, and Busby.	Casino	379	Pickapene	C	10,185	Hoop pine, gum, ironbark, peppermint, stringy bark, apple-tree, beech, white cedar, silky oak, and spotted gum.
Drake, Rous, and Richmond.	Shannon, Mummulgun, and Sandilands.	do	995		A	11,120	Gray, red, and spotted gum, ironbark, apple-tree, mahogany, yellowwood, mountain ash, stringy bark, bastard box, beech, mountain pine, and cedar.
Dudley	Stuart	Kempsey	5		A	40	Flooded gum, bloodwood, turpentine, blue and gray gum, and stringy bark.
Do	Kalateenee	do	112	Maria River	A	2,453	Black butt, mahogany, tallowwood, bloodwood, gray gum, blue and flooded gum, ironbark, turpentine, and forest oak.
Do	Mowlea, Comara, Cunnawarra, Botumburra, Nulla Nulla, and Pee Dee.	do	158	Styx	C	79,380	Bloodwood, mahogany, tallowwood, gray gum, turpentine, flooded gum, scrub box, black butt, stringy bark, rosewood, red gum, forest oak, beech, and red cedar.
Do	Stuart, Bellbrook, and Gordon.	do	3,753		C	16,000	Black butt, gray gum, mahogany, bloodwood, tallowwood, stringy bark, blue gum, turpentine, spotted, flooded, and red gum, forest oak, rosewood, and red cedar.
Do	Stuart	do	6,321		A	40	This is identical with Forest Reserve No. 5.
Do	Collombatti	do	12,301		A	6,500	Ironbark, black butt, bloodwood, gray gum, etc.
Dudley and Raleigh	Allgomera, Tanban, Unkya, Warrell, Barraganyatti, and Collombatti.	do	14,537	Allgomera	A	48,390	Black butt, mahogany, gray, blue, and blooded gums, tallowwood, bloodwood, ironbark, turpentine, forest oak, box, stringy bark, and beech. In lieu of Forest Reserves Nos. 70 and 110, canceled.

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Bland	Wargin	Grenfell	2,864		A	724	Pine and red gum.
Do	Combaning and Trigalong	Cootamundry	3,056		A	2,033¼	Pine, white and yellow box, bull oak, and red gum.
Do	Back Creek	Grenfell	3,973	Back Creek	A	6,040	Pine.
Do	Marbunga and Wyalong South.	do	10,803		A	2,300	Ironbark.
Do	Wargin and Marbunga	do	10,804		A	1,680	Do.
Do	Wargin	do	10,805		A	460	Do.
Do	Culingeral, Wargin, and Mandamah.	do	10,806		A	1,180	Do.
Do	Thanowring	Cootamundry	11,454		A	400	Ironbark, box, stringy bark, gum, pine, and oak.
Do	Eurabba	Grenfell	12,039		A	280	Pine.
Do	Tumbleton	Cootamundry	12,311		A	222	Box.
Do	Congou	do	14,520		B	249	Pine, stringy bark, and box.
Bland and Bourke	Walladilly, Thanaring, Cullengeral, Ingalba, Northcote, Quandary and Langi-Kal-Kal.	Wagga Wagga and Cootamundry.	10,231		A	7,800	Ironbark.
Bland and Clarendon	Sebastopol, Trigalong, and Walladilly.	do	3,082		A	333	
Bland and Monteagle	Euroka, Narowie, Bimbi, and Weddin.	Grenfell	1,855	Weddin	C	34,560	Pine, ironbark, stringy bark, and red gum.
Bland and Harden	Congou and Jindalee	Cootamundry	1,274	Burthong	B	2,591½	Ironbark and stringy bark.
Bligh	Bobadeen	Cassilis	62	Bobadeen	A	882	Ironbark, box, stringy bark, and apple tree.
Do	Collaroy	do	110	Collaroy	A	400	Box, ironbark, and pine.
Do	do	do	111		A	700	Ironbark, box, and pine.
Do	Turil	do	124		A	2,248	Ironbark, box, stringy bark, and pine.
Do	Warung and Gunna	do	142		C	1,970	Red gum and stringy bark.
Do	Warung	do	143		C	2,150	Red gum, stringy bark, and wattle scrub.
Do	Mummurra	do	158		A	12,646	Ironbark, pine, red gum, and slaty gum.
Do	Worobil	Wellington	2,379		A	1,143	Box, ironbark, and red gum. Reserve for fuel.
Do	Warung	Cassilis	9,325		A	400	Stringy bark.
Bligh and Lincoln	Bolaro and Rouse	Dubbo and Cassilis	1,598		A	360	Box, ironbark, gum, and currajong.
Bligh, Pottinger, and Napier.	Brennan, Lowe, and Warung	Coonabarabran and Gunnedah.	646	Brennans Gap	C	5,440	Stringy bark.
Brisbane	Watt and Campbell	Cassilis	95A		C	3,602¾	Red gum, ironbark, box, pine, and currajong.
Do	Wentworth	do	96		A	1,358	White and yellow box, red gum, stringy bark, forest oak, peppermint, and river oak.
Do	Wingen	do	179	Wingen	A	760	Ironbark, gum, and apple.

Do	Park	do	221		A	1,800	Ironbark.
Do	Wybong	do	3,275		A	1,780	Ironbark, and gray box.
Do	Willis	Scone	13,888		A	630	Cedar, yellow wood, ironwood, stringy bark, apple, and box.
Brisbane, Buckland, and Parry.	Tarnell, Loder, Crawney, Temi, and Lincoln.	Murrurundi and Tamworth.	1,266	Crawney	A	10,581	Stringy bark.
Bourke	Yarrangerry	Wagga Wagga	1		C	640	Pine—This is in effect an extension of No. 3048.
Do	Cottee and Coolamon	do	24		C	6,998	Pine.
Do	Ganmain, Kockibitoo, and Hooke.	do	1,251	Ganmain	A & C	12,786	Pine and box; 9,246 acres, Class C.
Do	Elliott, Kockibitoo and Matong.	do	1,421	Matong	SF	13,280	Pine.
Do	Robertson	do	1,439	Currajong	C	25,555	Pine and white box.
Do	Ardlethan, Davidson and Ariah.	do	2,548	Clear Paddock	A	10,240	Pine.
Do	Ashbridge, Devlin and Dulah.	do	2,652	Dulah	A & C	61,873	Pine; 173 acres in Class A.
Do	Davidson, Kildary, and Langi-Kal-Kal.	do	2,761		A	7,400	Pine and white box.
Do	Beaconsfield and Trickett	do	2,784		B	8,440	Ironbark.
Do	Northcote and Ingalba	do	2,785		B	16,000	Do.
Do	Mandamah	do	2,786A		C	2,830	Pine.
Do	Ramsay and Yithan	do	3,041		A	6,600	Pine and ironbark.
Do	Yarrangery	do	3,048		C	3,901	Pine and white box.
Do	Ganmain	do	3,924		A	1,420	White and yellow box.
Do	Kindra and Berry Jerry	do	8,171		C	2,730	White and black pine and white and yellow box.
Do	Hook and Ganmain	do	9,035		C	6,115	Pine and box.
Do	Currawanna	do	9,453		A	830	Pine and white box.
Do	Buddigower	do	10,232		A	1,550	Ironbark.
Do	Kildary	do	10,233		A	1,070	Do.
Do	Clermiston	do	10,380		A	776	Ironbark and box.
Do	Ramsay and Yithan	Narrandera	12,531		A	2,500	Pine.
Do	Berrembed	do	13,101		A	1,840	
Do	Kildary	Wagga Wagga	13,812		A	330	Ironbark. In lieu of Forest Reserve No. 10234, canceled.
Do	Mandamah	do	13,958		C	1,624	Pine.
Do	do	do	13,959		C	960	Do.
Do	Davidson and Mandamah	do	14,519		C	6,600	Do.
Bourke and Cooper	Willandra and Jillett	Narrandera and Wagga Wagga.	1,654	Willandra	A	11,520	Do.
Burnett and Murchison	Adams, Dumboy, Delingera, and Wyndham.	Bingara and Warialda.	1,373	Generoi	A	30,000	Ironbark and pine.
Blaxland	Uranaway	Hilston North	3,556		A	1,200	Pine, box, and mallee.
Do	Creamy Hills and Moora	do	7,447		A	3,840	Pine and box.
Do	West Uabba	do	13,740		A	2,000	Pine.
Do	Illewong	do	14,145		A	1,200	Do.
Do	Meldior, Creamy Hills, and Moora.	Hillston	14,458		A	3,200	

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve. Number.	Reserve. Name.	Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
						Acres.	
Boyd	Uri	Narrandera	180		C	1,400	Red gum.
Do	Carabury	do	182		C	1,280	Do.
Do	Coleambally	do	1,731		C	1,566	Black and white pine and box.
Do	Argoon	do	1,754	Argoon, No. 1	C	1,092½	Do.
Do	Mycotha	do	1,755	Argoon, No. 2	C	640	Do.
Do	do	do	1,756	Argoon, No. 3	C	1,052½	Do.
Do	do	do	1,757	Argoon, No. 4	C	538	Do.
Do	do	do	1,780		A	2,745	Do.
Do	do	do	1,781		A	640	Do.
Do	Argoon	do	1,782		A	412½	Do.
Do	do	do	1,783		A	640	Do.
Do	Eunanbrennan	Hay	1,884		C	937	Box.
Do	Cararbury	Narrandera	1,905		A and C	2,327	Red gum; 87 acres under Class A.
Do	Waddi	do	1,997		C	1,207½	Black and white pine and box.
Do	do	do	1,998		A	2,028½	Pine and box.
Do	Boona	do	2,238		A	2,163½	Black and white pine and box.
Do	Waddi	do	2,258		C	1,200	Red gum.
Do	Banandra	do	2,526		A	460	Black and white pine.
Do	Ourendumbee	do	2,527		A	640	Do.
Do	Burt	do	13,491		A	384	Red gum and pine.
Do	Tubbo	do	13,492		A	4,600	Do.
Do	Jurambula	do	13,493		A	327½	Do.
Do	Tubbo	do	13,494		A	517	Do.
Do	do	do	13,495		A	846	Do.
Do	Uroly	do	13,496		A	484	Do.
Do	Jurambula	do	14,156		A	240	Pine.
Buckland	Werrie	Tamworth	2,003		A	707	Ironbark.
Do	Coeypolly	do	14,004		A	1,650	Ironbark and pine.
Buckland and Parry	Carroll, Balbinboon, and Moorawarra.	Tamworth and Gunnedah.	5,038		A	1,690	Pine.
Buccleuch	Weejasper	Tumut and Yass	2,341	Weejasper	A	23,040	Mountain ash, stringy bark, black butt, ribbon and white gum, and box.
Do	Cooleman	Tumut	2,926	Cooleman	A	5,500	Messmate, stringy bark, spotted gum, white and cabbage gum, blacksally and cherry.
Do	Bramina	Queanbeyan	3,150		A	7,680	Stringy bark.
Do	Adjunbilly and Wyangle	Tumut	3,177	Red Hill	C	5,980½	Messmate, stringy bark, and ribbon gum.
Do	Talbingo and Jounama	do	3,234		A	8,000	Messmate, curabbie, stringy bark, ribbon gum, and apple tree.
Do	Nanangroo	Gundagai	8,091		A	160	
Do	The Peaks	Tumut	9,513		A	7,000	Mountain ash.
Do	Brungle	Gundagai and Tumut.	9,738				

Buller	*Broomi, Moarimi, Burgess, Tooloom, Capeen, Claribil,* and Pocupar.	*Tenterfield and Casino*	4		A	6,700	Cedar, pine, etc.
Do	Acacia Creek	Tenterfield	500	Acacia Creek	A	1,200	Pine, red and gray gum, white and scrub box, oak, and peppermint.
Do	do	do	1,439A		A	3,800	Pine, stringy bark, blue and red gum, silky oak, and peppermint.
Do	Acacia, Gore, and Koreelah	do	14,150		A	16,000	Beech, sassafras, pine, coachwood, cedar, mahogany, ironbark, and blue and spotted gum.
Buller, Rous, and Drake	Mummulgum, Dryas, Tonumbar, Babyl, Sherwood, Black Camp, Peacock, etc.	Casino	1,120	Hogarth Range	A	80,788	Ironbark, blue and red gum, tallowwood, bloodwood, and black butt.
Buller and Clive	Barney Downs and Boonoo Boonoo.	Tenterfield	1,624		A	3,200	Stringy bark, messmate, blue and red gum, white box, peppermint, and woolly butt.
Buller, Clive, and Drake	Cavendish, Timbarra, Girard, and West Fairfield.	Casino and Tenterfield	4,406		A	14,300	Woolly butt, messmate, stringy bark, gray, white, and red gum, sassafras, yellowwood, corkwood, and red cedar.
Cadell	Toorangabby and Perricoota.	Deniliquin	2,420		A	1,450	Red gum.
Do	Moama and Bama	do	3,252	Backwater Creek	C	5,590	Do.
Do	Bama, Moira, and Gulpa	do	3,253	Moira	C and SF	36,728	Red gum; 12,510 acres, proclaimed as the Moira State Forest.
Do	Toorangabby, Tomara, Burrumbury, Tantonan, and Thule.	do	3,254	Moama	C	44,537	Red gum.
Do	Perricoota	do	3,255		C	810	Do.
Do	Moama	do	11,385			17	Reserve for planting.
Cairn	Glen, Emu, and Yough	Balranald	13,920		A	3,200	Box.
Camden	Wollongong	Wollongong	38A	Illawarra	C	580	Mountain ash and swamp mahogany.
Do	Burrawang	Berrima	43A		C	59	Woolly butt, white box, and turpentine.
Do	Jamberoo and Kiama	Kiama	78		C	202	Turpentine, messmate, and white box.
Do	Jamberoo	do	112		C	200	Do.
Do	Wallaya	Nowra	119	The Cliffs	C	4,840	Leather jacket, woolly butt, swamp mahogany, messmate, box, ribbon gum, cedar, and brush timbers.
Do	Bunberra	do	121A		C	110	Leather jacket, ash, beech, box, and brush timbers.
Do	Wallaya and Broughton	do	122	Brogers Creek	C	440	Leather jacket, messmate, woolly butt, box, sassafras, and brush timbers.
Do	Broughton	do	155		C	15	Leather jacket, sassafras, beech, messmate, woolly butt, and brush timbers.
Do	do	do	156		C	52	Do.
Do	do	do	157		C	60	Do.
Do	Yarrawa	Berrima	167		A	100	Box, messmate, beech, sassafras, and myrtle.
Do	Broughton and Wallaya	Kiama	168		C	2,968	Woolly butt, messmate, leather jacket, sassafras, box, and brush timbers.
Do	Cambewarra	Nowra	172		A	170	Leather jacket, turpentine, messmate, and brush timbers.
Do	do	do	173		C	100	Leather jacket, messmate, box, cedar, turpentine and brush timbers.
Do	Cambewarra and Bunberra	do	174		C	350	Leather jacket, sassafras, messmate, box, and brush timbers.

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve. Number.	Reserve. Name.	Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
						Acres.	
Camden	Jamberoo and Kangaloon	Kiama and Berrima	175		C	1,600	Black butt and messmate.
Do	Burrawang	Berrima	177		A	105	Box and messmate.
Do	Kembla and Calderwood	Wollongong	179		A	100	Messmate and mountain ash.
Do	Calderwood	do	180		A	120	Messmate, sassafras, beech, and brush timbers.
Do	do	do	181		A	320	White box, messmate, sassafras, beech, and sallywood.
Do	Yarrawa	Berrima	184		A	7a. 24p.	Brush timbers; also for public recreation.
Do	Cambewarra	Nowra	197		A	23a. 16p.	Do.
Do	Wallaya	do	199		A	50	White box and messmate.
Do	do	do	200		A	60	Do.
Do	Kiama	Kiama	201		A	100	Turpentine, messmate, and white box.
Do	Kangaloon	Berrima	202		A	150	Black but and messmate.
Do	Bugong	Nowra	203		A	250	Leather jacket, messmate, box, turpentine, woolly butt, cedar, and brush timbers.
Do	Burrawang	Berrima	204		A	250	White box, messmate, and brush timbers.
Do	do	do	205		A	300	Peppermint, mountain ash, white box, and messmate
Do	Yarrawa	do	206		A	325	Do.
Do	Bugong and Cambewarra	Nowra	207		A	650	Turpentine, box, messmate, ironbark, woolly butt, and stringy bark.
Do	Cambewarra	do	209		C	1,000	Messmate, box, cedar, woolly butt, turpentine, and brush timbers.
Do	Illaroo	do	211		A	34	Messmate, stringy bark, woolly butt, turpentine, and brush timbers.
Do	Yarrawa	Berrima	216		A	4a. 37p.	Brush timbers.
Do	Bugong	Nowra	218		A	45	Do.
Do	Cambewarra	do	219		A	50	Messmate, gum, turpentine, and brush timbers.
Do	Wallaya	do	220		C	375	Swamp mahogany, woolly butt, ribbon gum, and brush timbers.
Do	Burrawang	Berrima	221		C	370	Gray gum, bloodwood, and white gum.
Do	Cambewarra	Nowra	5,658		C	490	Brush timbers.
Do	Wollongong	Wollongong	6,503		C	120	Scrub; also for ferry purposes.
Do	Burragorang and Killawarrah.	Picton	14,162		A	11,620	Ironbark, blue gum, etc.
Clarence	Stuart and Lawrence	Grafton	24		A	2,500	Blue and spotted gum, oak, ironbark, blackbutt, stringy bark, tallowwood, bloodwood, and mahogany

Do	*Clarence River*	*do*	38		C	1,184	Twenty-four islands in the Clarence River.
Do	*Banyabba, Lawrence, and Ashley.*	*do*	242	Lawrence	C	11,100	Ironbark, spotted gum, black butt, gray gum, stringy bark, bloodwood, mahogany, flooded gum, and beech.
Do	Tindale and Coldstream	do	243	Coldstream	C	7,600	Spotted gum, black butt, ironbark, mahogany, tallowwood, and bloodwood.
Do	Glen Ugie	do	244A	Glen Ugie	C	7,676	Oak, tea tree, spotted gum, ironbark, gray gum, box, bloodwood, and mahogany.
Do	Great Marlow	do	260	Alumy Creek	C	71	Ironbark, tallowwood, beech, mahogany, and gray gum.
Do	Southgate	do	353	Southgate	C	4,480	Ironbark, spotted and gray gum, bloodwood, tallowwood, and blackbutt.
Do	Elland and Lanitza	do	406A	Clarenza	B	3,921	Spotted gum, box, ironbark, red and gray gum.
Do	Woodford	do	979	Woodford Island	A	740	Box, bloodwood, mahogany, ironbark, tallowwood, and spotted gum.
Do	Richmond	do	1,039		A	560	
Do	Chapman	do	2,123	Coalbrook	C	9,250¾	Ironbark, red and spotted gum, black butt, bloodwood, stringy bark, and flooded gum.
Clarence and Richmond	Banyabba, Camira and Myall	Grafton and Casino	27		A	2,520	Blue gum, spotted gum, stringy bark, and bloodwood.
Do	Banyabba, Richmond, Woombah, Gibberagee, Ashby, and Myall.	do	1,101	Richmond Range	A	19,016	Spotted gum, ironbark, stringy bark, black butt, gray gum, tallowwood, mahogany, and bloodwood.
Clarke	Rampsbeck, Allingham, Aberfoyle, and Kangaroo.	Armidale	886		A	1,280	Stringy bark.
Do	Nowland and Warner	do	967		A	1,650	Do.
Do	Avondale	do	1,051		A	1,720	Do.
Do	Big Hill, George, Clarke, Styx, Jegola, Serpentine, and Cunnewarra.	do	1,662		C	45,000	Stringy bark, messmate, tallowwood, blue, spotted, and gray gum, cedar, and brush timbers.
Do	Snowy and Serpentine	do	1,663		C	17,000	Stringy bark, black butt, and blue gum.
Do	Dyke and Big Hill	do	10,991		A	315	Cedar.
Do	Mowles	do	10,992		A	5,760	Do.
Do	George	do	10,993		A	13,600	Do.
Cooper	Euratha and Munduburra	Narrandera	1		A	11,709	Black and white pine and box.
Do	Grong Grong	do	310	Bundidgerie	C	1,600	Red gum and box.
Do	Bolaro	do	1,881		C	3,240	Black and white pine.
Do	Sandy Creek	do	2,211		A	14,720	Do.
Do	Jondaryn and Wyangan	do	2,382		A	5,700	Pine, box, and bull oak.
Do	Bingar, Binya, and Stanbridge.	do	2,740	Binya	C	29,360	Pine.
Do	Coolaragang and Cuba	do	2,984	Darlington	C	1,020	Red gum.
Do	Cuba and Hulong	do	2,985	Hulong	C	5,098	Red gum and box.
Do	Dallas	do	2,986	Dairy Point East	C	300	Red gum.
Do	Dallas, Gogeldrie, and Yarangery.	do	2,987	Gogeldrie	C	6,560	Red gum and box.
Do	Yarangery	do	2,988	Yarangery	C	3,340	Do.
Do	Coolaragang	do	2,992	Cuba	C	880	Red gum.
Do	Dallas	do	2,993	Dairy Point	C	2,200	Do.
Do	Yalgogoring	do	3,032		C	3,200	Pine.
Do	do	do	3,033		C	1,300	Do.
Do	Bolaro	do	3,035		C	1,350	Do.

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Cooper	Bolaro	Narrandera	3,036		C	4,200	Pine.
Do	Barralong	do	3,037		C	3,200	Do.
Do	Conapaira	do	4,157		A	605	Do.
Do	Sim's Gap	do	4,158		A	840	Do.
Do	Conapaira East	do	4,159		A	1,920	Do.
Do	Conapaira South	do	4,160		A	3,600	Do.
Do	Conapaira, Conapaira East, and Conapaira South.	do	4,161		A	3,840	Do.
Do	Cudgel	do	13,135		A	1,080	Pine and red gum; land suitable for planting.
Do	Bolaro	do	13,511		C	973	Pine.
Do	do	do	13,512		C	2,985	Do.
Cooper and Gipps	Narriah, Wallandry North, and Brolga.	Narrandera and Hillston.	13,647		A	2,940	Ironbark, box, and sandalwood.
Clarendon	Sebastopol	Wagga Wagga	3,081		A	40	Box.
Harden and Clarendon	Burra, Muttama, Ulandra, and Mitta Mitta.	Cootamundry and Gundagai.	2,284	Mitta Mitta	C	1,920	Stringy bark and white box.
Do	Bongongalong and North Gundagai.	Gundagai	2,693		A	320	White box, stringy bark, and apple tree.
Cook	Irvine	Windsor	33		C	158	Mountain ash, black butt, gum, ironbark, and stringy bark.
Do	do	do	201		C	61	Mountain ash, peppermint, gray gum, sassafras, and stringy bark.
Do	do	do	202		C	28	Mountain ash, sassafras, stringy bark, and peppermint.
Do	Strathdon and Warragamba.	Penrith	1,966		A	4,600	Ironbark, mahogany, turpentine, and stringy bark.
Do	Strathdon	do	6,260		A	952	Within boundaries of Forest Reserve No. 1966.
Do	do	do	8,263		A	730	Do.
Do	Kurrajong and Burralow	do	10,083		A	2,560	
Courallie	Weah Waa	Moree	4		A	50	
Do	Bundoowithidee	do	948		C	800	Pine.
Do	Weebullabulla	do	949		A	1,556	Do.
Do	Carore	do	1,050		C	2,700	Pine and box.
Do	Weah Waa	do	1,300		A	2,200	Pine, box, and brigalow.
Do	Terry-hie-hie, Downs, and Pringle.	Bingara	2,335	Terrie-hie-hie	A	13,500	Pine and ironbark.
Do	Berrygill and Perrergee	do	2,336		A	7,500	Do.

		do					
Do	Urayarra	Cooma	726		A	6,500	Stringy bark and mountain ash.
Do	Gurrangora	Queanbeyan	871		A	960	Mountain ash, gray gum, and stringy bark.
Do	Orroral	do	888		A	640	Ribbon and brittle gum.
Do	Booroomba		2,673		A	1,140	Ribbon gum, messmate, peppermint, and white gum.
Do	Mullion	Yass	3,005		A	3,180	Ribbon and swamp gum, ash, stringy bark, and yellow box.
Do	Congwarra	Queanbeyan	13,389	Congwarra	A	3,470	Stringy bark, box, swamp oak, ribbon and brittle gum. In lieu of Forest Reserve No. 426, canceled.
Cowper	Bomglega	Bourke	1,202		A	2,260	Pine.
Do	Goulburn and Runnymeade	do	2,236		A	1,400	Do.
Cumberland	Bulgo and Heathcote	Campbelltown	110	Bottle Forest	C	5,693	Ironbark, black butt, turpentine, and bangally.
Do	Maroota	Windsor	9,056		A	6,000	Swamp mahogany, blue gum, tea tree, stringy bark, ironbark, bloodwood, forest oak, red apple, rock apple, and wattle.
Do	Bulgo	Campbelltown	14,660		C	12	Wattle, blackbutt, etc. Land exempted.
Do	do	do	14,661		C	26	Do.
Do	do	do	14,662		C	135	Do.
Clive	Capoompeta	Glen Innes	2		A	3,000	Woolly butt, messmate, gray and white gum.
Do	Dickson and Forest Land	Tenterfield	1,378A		A	13,600	Tallowwood, bloodwood, messmate, woolly butt, stringy bark, red and gray gum, and sassafras.
Do	Booroo, Capoompeta	Glen Innes	2,698		A	1,696	Messmate, woolly butt, stringy bark, gray and blue gum.
Do	Booroo	Tenterfield and Glen Innes.	6,338		A	40	Within Forest Reserve No. 2698.
Do	Booroo, Jondol, Goolamanger, and Morven.	Tenterfield	8,928		A	11,000	Messmate, woolly butt, stringy bark, gray and blue gum, and scrub timbers.
Do	Dickson	do	12,576		A	1,700	Stringy bark and gum.
Clive and Gough	Angoperan and Parkes	do	1,337		A	6,320	Woolly butt, messmate, red and gray gum.
Do	Parkes, Scott, and Eastern Water.	Tenterfield and Glen Innes.	1,448		A	14,200	Messmate, woolly butt, blue and gray gum, sassafras, and honeysuckle.
Do	Garrett, Butterleaf, and Parkes.	Glen Innes	4,745		A	4,400	Woolly butt, messmate, blue and gray gum, stringy bark, sassafras, whitewood, oak, and peppermint.
Clyde	Carinda and Quabothoo	Brewarrina	7,335		A	4,240	Pine.
Clyde and Leichhardt	Gidgerygah, Devon, Gilwarny, and Carinda.	Walgett	3,421		A	12,150	Do.
Cunningham	Badjerribong	Forbes	1		A	161	Red gum.
Do	Murda and Condobolin	Condobolin	1,269	Condobolin	A	3,300	Pine, wilga, yarran, and rosewood.
Do	Gunning	Forbes	1,538		A	4,400	Pine.
Do	Taratta and Mowabla	Condobolin	1,984		A	3,700	Pine and box.
Do	Mount Knobby and Taratta	do	1,985		A	3,432	Pine.
Do	Mulgutherie	do	7,677		A	240	Red gum.
Do	Cookeys Plains and Gunningbland.	Parkes	8,664		A	11,520	Pine.
Do	Tinda and Tollingo	Condobolin	8,904		A	800	Do.
Do	Emu Plains and Murda	do	9,593		A	1,240	Do.
Do	Derriwong and Berewombenia.	do	13,686		A	1,577	Do.
Do	Murda and Condoublin	do	14,187		A	1,004	Do.

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve. Number.	Reserve. Name.	Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
						Acres.	
Dampier	Bodalla	Broulee	2	Amhurst Island	C	25	Spotted gum and mahogany; stunted and only useful for shelter.
Do	Noorooma	do	4	Mount Dromedary	A	3,800	Mountain ash, messmate, peppermint, white top, and brush timber.
Do	Bergalia	do	16		A	4,180	Ironbark, peppermint, redwood, black butt, bloodwood, stringy bark, and box.
Do	Bodalla	do	249	Tuross	C	380	Spotted gum, ironbark, black butt, mahogany, and box.
Do	Bermagui	do	305	Bermagui	A	2,700	Ironbark, stringy bark, white box, black butt, spotted and white gum, peppermint, messmate, bloodwood, and wattle.
Do	Wagonga	do	307		A and C	7,835½	Spotted gum, black butt, ironbark, messmate, redwood, box, and red gum; 4,200 acres in Class A.
Do	Wagonga	do	2,058		C	87	Spotted gum.
Do	Tanja	Bega	2,975		A	1,600	Ironbark, spotted gum, peppermint, stringy bark, mountain ash, messmate, and white box.
Do	Burra	Broulee	6,216		A	1,870	Ironbark, spotted gum, stringy bark, redwood, bloodwood, and box.
Do	Bermagui	do	7,059		A	236	Ironbark, stringy bark, spotted gum, and and mahogany.
Do	do	Bega	7,060		A	105¼	Ironbark, stringy bark, swamp mahogany, and spotted gum.
Do	Bergalia	Broulee	9,248		A	2,800	Ironbark, spotted gum, black butt, mountain ash, redwood, stringy bark, woolly butt, bloodwood, and red or gray gum.
Do	Murrah	Bega	10,183		A	2,360	Ironbark, peppermint, gray box, spotted and ribbon gum, and mahogany.
Darling	Dinawirindi	Tamworth	3	Manilla	A	3,205	Pine.
Do	Ironbark and Tiabundie	do	9,736		A	7,500	Ironbark and stringy bark.
Do	Halloran	do	12.780		A	3,555	Box and gum; in lieu of Forest Reserve No. 1737, canceled.
Do	Hobden	do	12.715		A	5,000	Stringy bark; in lieu of Forest Reserve No. 1270, canceled.
Do	Gulligal	do	14,366		A	3,100	Ironbark, stringy bark, woolly butt, box gum, and apple.
Darling and Murchison	North Barraba and Tiabundie.	Bingara and Tamworth	1,585		A	3,840	Box.
Denham	Murkadool	Walgett	1,618		A	640	Pine and box.

Do.	*Wardry*	*Condobolin*			A	640	Do.
Do.	*Carilla*	*Hillston*	14,281		A	1,280	Do.
Do.	*Yelkin*	*do*	14,509		A	2,100	Do.
Do.	Tooronga and *Cargelligo*	*do*	14,547		A	2,520	Do.
Drake	Timbarra	Casino	14,548	Timbarra	C	31,360	Stringy bark, red gum, ironbark, messmate, bloodwood, box, and mountain ash.
Do.	Mookimer and Rodham	do	248	Mount Neville	C	38,400	Red gum, bloodwood, ironbark, stringy bark, yellow box, green wattle, forest oak, beech, apple-tree, tallowwood, and brush timbers.
Do.	Alice	do	537		A	500	Stringy bark, yellow box, ironbark, bloodwood, red gum, forest oak, mahogany, and black butt.
Do.	Picarbin	do	913		A	80	Red and white gum, stringy bark, black butt, apple-tree, yellow box, ironbark, forest oak, mahogany, and tea tree.
Do.	Albert and Richmond	Glen Innes	920		A	9,005½	Cedar, beech, sassafras, tallowwood, rosewood, brown and blue gum, and scrub box.
Do.	Puhoi and Cangi	do	6,264		A	18,000	
Do.	Coombadjha, Dandahra, Albert, and Richmond.	do	6,309		A	4,250	Red cedar, beech, sassafras, coachwood, tallow, myrtle, scrub box, ironbark, and stringy bark.
Do.	Dandahra	do	9,999		A	900	In lieu of Forest Reserve No. 0368.
Do.	Rodgers	do	11,111		A	9,800	Cedar; land suitable for planting.
Do.	do	do	11,452		A	40	Do.
Drake and Richmond.	Pickapene, Coongbar, Alice, Wyon, and Busby.	Casino	11,453	Pickapene	C	10,185	Hoop pine, gum, ironbark, peppper mint, stringy bark, apple-tree, beech, white cedar, silky oak, and spotted gum.
Drake, Rous, and Richmond.	Shannon, Mummulgun, and Sandilands.	do	379		A	11,120	Gray, red, and spotted gum, ironbark, apple-tree, mahogany, yellowwood, mountain ash, stringy bark, bastard box, beech, mountain pine, and cedar.
Dudley	Stuart	Kempsey	995		A	40	Flooded gum, bloodwood, turpentine, blue and gray gum, and stringy bark.
Do.	Kslateenee	do	5		A	2,453	Black butt, mahogany, tallowwood, bloodwood, gray gum, blue and flooded gum, ironbark, turpentine, and forest oak.
Do.	Mowles, Comara, Cunnawarra, Botumburra, Nulla Nulla, and Pee Dee.	do	112	Maria River	C	79,380	Bloodwood, mahogany, tallowwood, gray gum, turpentine, flooded gum, scrub box, black butt, stringy bark, rosewood, red gum, forest oak, beech, and red cedar.
Do.	Stuart, Bellbrook, and Gordon.	do	158	Styx	C	16,000	Black butt, gray gum, mahogany, bloodwood, tallowwood, stringy bark, blue gum, turpentine, spotted, flooded, and red gum, forest oak, rosewood, and red cedar.
Do.	Stuart	do	3,753		C		
Do.	Collombatti	do	6,321		A	40	This is identical with Forest Reserve No. 5.
Dudley and Raleigh	Allgomera, Tanban, Unkya, Warrell, Barraganyatti, and Collombatti.	do	12,301		A	6,500	Ironbark, black butt, bloodwood, gray gum, etc.
			14,537	Allgomera	A	48,390	Black butt, mahogany, gray, blue, and blooded gums, tallowwood, bloodwood, ironbark, turpentine, forest oak, box, stringy bark, and beech. In lieu of Forest Reserves Nos. 70 and 110, canceled.

Forest reserves of New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Denison	Cottadidda	Corowa	107		C	270	Red gum and pine.
Do	Wahgunyah	do	1,591	Wahgunyah	SF	4,120	Pine.
Do	Savenake and Warmatta	do	1,592	Savernake	C	640	Do.
Do	Boomanoomana	do	1,639	Boomanoomana	SF	400	Red gum.
Do	Wahgunyah	do	2,384		A	180	Pine.
Do	Turramia	do	2,386		C	370	Red gum.
Do	Wahgunyah	do	2,868		A	400	Pine.
Do	Gereldery	do	3,119		A	375	Do.
Do	Warmatta	do	3,144	Warmatta	SF	740	Pine and oak.
Do	Mulwala	do	3,208	Mulwala West	SF	1,340	Red gum.
Do	Boomanoomana	do	3,209	Boomanoomana No. 4.	SF	960	Do.
Do	do	do	3,210	Boomanoomana, No. 2.	SF	1,831½	Do.
Do	do	do	3,211	Boomanoomana, No. 3.	SF	108	Do.
Do	Cottadidda	do	3,212	Cottadidda, No. 1	C	300	Do.
Do	do	do	3,213	Cottadidda, No. 2	C	280	Do.
Do	do	do	3,214	Cottadidda, No. 3	C	150	Do.
Do	Barooga	do	3,215	Barrooga	C and SF	2,494	Red gum; 1,350 acres, proclaimed as a State forest.
Do	Mulwala and Turramia	do	3,216	Mulwala	SF	4,500	Red gum.
Do	Cottadidda	do	3,240		C	105	Pine.
Do	Tocumwal	do	3,241		C	400	Red gum.
Do	Woperana	do	3,242		C	360	Do.
Do	Turramia	do	4,504		C	48	Do.
Durham	Goorangoola	Singleton	79	Ravensworth	B	1,184	Red ironbark, spotted red gum, and box.
Do	Butterwick	Maitland	158	Hinton	A	400	Blue, gray, and spotted gum, ironbark, box, and forest oak.
Do	Dyrring and Broughton	Singleton	195		C	1,250	Spotted gum, black butt, and blue gum.
Do	Mount Royal and Liebeg	do	196		C	10,000	Blue gum, box, stringy bark, red gum, turpentine, and ironbark.
Do	Boonabilla and Carrow	Paterson	201		C	22,442	Messmate, red gum, forest gak, stringy bark, flooded gum, turpentine, and cedar.
Do	Allyn, Colonna, and Holywell.	Paterson and Dungog.	202		A	48,000	Blue, gray, and red gum, turpentine, messmate, cedar, beech, corkwood, box, rosewood, sassafras, etc.

Do	Boonabilla	do	8, 292		C	40	Within Forest Reserve No. 201.
Do	*Chalmers and Beltrees*	Scone	10, 222		A	7, 500	Stringy bark, red gum, and cedar.
Ewenmar	*Tacklebang*	*Dubbo*	1, 073		A	760	Pine.
Do	*Warrie*	*Coonamble*	1, 556		C	1, 180	Do.
Do	Gewah	do	9, 139		A	1, 280	Belah, pine, and oak.
Ewenmar and Gregory	Galargambone and Tailby	do	1, 138		A and C	8, 600	Pine; 1,040 acres, in Class C.
Fitzroy	Coff and Moonee	Grafton and Bellingen	136	Moonee	A	12, 440	Black butt, tallowwood, mahogany, gray and blue gum, ironbark, turpentine, and flooded gum.
Do	Ermington	Grafton	259	Chambigne Creek	C	8, 200	Pine, spotted gum, ironbark, stringy bark, red gum, and forest oak.
Do	Dorrigo, Clarence, Jardine, Herborn, and Cope.	Bellingen and Grafton	354	Clouds Creek	C	48, 000	Red gum, box, stringy bark, forest oak, pine, bloodwood, black butt, beech, tallowwood, rosewood, mountain ash, and cedar.
Do	Tyringham and Dorrigo	Bellingen	355	Glen Fernie Creek	C	5, 560	Pine, stringy bark, tallowwood, forest oak, red gum, rosewood, tulipwood, beech, and cedar.
Do	Coff, Moonee, Wonga Wanga, and Comlaroi.	do	642	Orara	C	6, 600½	Ironbark, flooded gum, red mahogany, tallowwood, black butt, turpentine, blue gum, pine, beech, rosewood, coachwood, sassafras, bean, and cherry.
Do	Hyland	Armadale and Bellingen.	2, 152		A	7, 000	Stringy bark and blue gum.
Do	Woogoola and Corindi	Grafton	2, 439		A	4, 680	Black butt, tallowwood, messamate, red mahogany, bloodwood, ironbark, spotted gum, gray gum, and forest oak.
Do	Leigh	do	6, 732		A	450	Cedar plantation within the Dorrigo Forest Reserve.
Do	Ross, Duckan Duckan, and Turville.	do	10, 786		A	18, 560	Ironbark, spotted gum, gray gum, red gum, box, stringy bark, forest oak, pine, black butt, bloodwood, and tallowwood; in lieu of Forest Reserve No 675, canceled.
Fitzroy and Raleigh	Bonville, North Bellinger, and Fitzroy.	Bellingen	121	Bellinger	A	15, 904¾	Blackbutt, tallowwood, ironbark, turpentine, flooded-gum, and beech.
Do	Fenton, Bligh, Leigh, Allan, and Bostobrick.	do	377	Dorrigo	C	23, 880	Cedar, pine, rosewood, beech, mountain ash, tulip-wood, bean, plum, sassafras, and gray-gum.
Farnell	do	Willyama	1	Morphitts Creek	C	1, 100	Timber within 2 chains of the creek.
Do	Torrowangee	do	13, 788		C	60	To protect the timber along Poolmacca Creek.
Do	Torrowangee, Byjerkerno, and Coonbaralba.	do	13, 789		C	220	To protect the timber along Trough's or Torrowangee Creek.
Do	Torrowangee and Coonbaralba.	do	13, 790		C	800	To protect the timber along Campbell Creek.
Do	Alberta and Corona	do	14, 153		C	360	To protect the timber along Corona Creek.
Do	do	do	14, 154		C	400	To protect the timber along Alberta Creek.
Farnell and Mootwingee.	Byjerkerno and Caloola	do	6, 668		C	1, 050	Within the banks, and within 2 chains of the banks of Euriowie, Byjerkerno, Candah, and Colah creeks.
Finch	Yarraman	Walgett	4		A	1, 867½	Pine.
Do	Bloxsome, Dunbar, and Deripas.	do	8		A	5, 550	Pine, box, and carbeen.
Do	Bukkulla	do	16		A	1, 200	Box and belar.

Forest reserves in New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Finch	Baloon	Walgett	525		A	2,560	Box, belar, and pine.
Do	Mooni	do	526		A	2,160	Belar.
Do	Dalbrandi	do	744		A	2,380	Pine.
Do	Deripas	do	745		A	1,920	Do.
Do	Langloh and Birben	do	838		A	2,560	Do.
Do	Dunumbral	do	892		A	624¾	Box and belar.
Do	Dunumbral and Somerville	do	893		A	4,776	Box, pine, and belar.
Do	Dunumbral	do	894		A	947½	Box and belar.
Do	Bukkulla	do	6,257		A	225	Pine, box, and carbeen.
Forbes	Morongla	Cowra	1,143	Cowra	C	4,235	Pine.
Do	Mulgandry and Eraso	Forbes	1,306A		A	3,705	Do.
Do	Mulgandry and Bandon	do	1,350A		A	2,720	Do.
Do	Broula	Cowra	2,880		A	561	Do.
Do	Ooma, Birangan, and Warraderry.	Forbes	3,013		A	5,814	Pine and ironbark.
Do	Birangan and Bogalong	Grenfell	3,115		A	2,960	Pine.
Do	Wheogo	do	9,582		A	1,735	Ironbark, white box, pine, and bull oak.
Do	Conimbla, Gooloogong, and Kangarooby.	Cowra	10,960		A	16,630	
Do	Eualdrie	Grenfell	13,433		A	209	
Forbes and Gipps	Tallabyn and Carrawandool	Forbes	1,361		A	10,200	Pine and box.
Do	Jemalong and Jemalong West.	do	9,849		A	225	Red gum.
Forbes and Monteagle	Eualdrie and Weddin	Grenfell	2,895		A	4,670	Ironbark, stringy bark, red-gum, and pine.
Do	Warrumba and Yambira	do	3,176		A	900	Ironbark, stringy bark, pine, and box.
Flinders	Minalon	Parkes	4		A	3,360	Pine, box, and bull oak.
Do	Currajong, Red Gilgais and Talgong.	do	5		A	15,360	Pine.
Do	Babinda and Gumbine	do	2,086		A	6,600	Do.
Do	Babinda, Babego, and Gumbine.	do	9,057		A	13,270	Do.
Do	Panjee, Walwa, and Kinnear	Cobar East	14,310		A	10,240	Pine.
Franklin	Wirringa	Hillston	2,695		A	225	Stunted box—required for shelter.
Do	Goolagunni, Terry, Kongong, and Gonowlia.	do	2,711		C	7,160	Pine.
Do	Kongong and Bellatherie	do	9,739		A	960	Pine.
Georgiana	Rockley	Bathurst	43A		A	600	Stringy bark, red-gum, white box, and apple-tree.
Do	Isabella and Bumarang	Bathurst and Lithgow	94		A	1,695	Stringy bark.
Do	Garrynian	Lithgow	2,383		A	4,400	Mountain ash, gum, and blackbutt.
Do	Gillindich	Carcoar	5,429		A	6,340	Stringy bark.

Do	Yowrangara	do	7,583		A	670	Stringy bark and red box.
Do	Glengarry	do	12,970		A	3,070	Stringy bark, pine, box, and gum; includes Forest Reserve No. 10820, canceled.
Gipps	Merribooka, Wilga, Crown Camp, and Cookaburragong.	Condobolin	4		A	7,670	Pine and box.
Do	Nerang, Cowal, and Moora Moora.	Forbes	6		A	1,560	Pine.
Do	Cadow	do	1,175	Cadow	C	1,250	Red gum.
Do	Yarnal and Weelah	Condobolin	1,287		C	3,840	Pine, box, and gum.
Do	Ina	Forbes	1,303	Ina	C	657¼	Pine.
Do	Towyal	do	1,436	Towyal	C	345	Red gum.
Do	Jemalong West, Towyal, Wilbetroy, and West Plains.	do	1,581	Wilbetroy	A	4,500	Pine.
Do	Wamboyne	Condobolin	1,875A		A	2,901	Pine, ironbark, box, and yarren.
Do	Moonbia	do	2,662		A	3,300	Gum, box, and bull oak.
Do	Cadow	do	3,211		A	2,800	Gum.
Do	Wollongough	do	13,848		A	1,920	Pine, box, and ironbark.
Gipps and Dowling	Goobothery and Brotheroney	do	14,282		A	1,440	Pine.
Gloucester	Beryan and Talawahl	Taree	46A	Forster	A	26,700	Blackbutt, tallowwood, red, flooded, blue, spotted, and gray gums, forest mahogany, brush and forest box, ironbark, bloodwood, stringy bark, and turpentine.
Do	Stockton	Newcastle	171	Port Hunter	C	375¾	Brush—required to prevent sand drifting into the harbor.
Do	Beryan	Taree	8,797		A	161½	Adjoins Forest Reserve No. 46A.
Do	Tinonee	do	11,637		A	2,300	Ironbark.
Do	Tinonee and Talawahl	do	11,638		A	4,600	Do.
Do	Curreeki, Kyle, and Telerarree.	Taree and Stroud	12,528		A	8,000	
Do	Gooloongolok and Wang Wauk.	Taree	12,529		A	4,000	
Do	Gooloongolok and Curreeki	do	12,530		A	1,200	
Do	Nerong	Stroud	13,362		A	3,730	Tallowwood, gray and blue gum, turpentine, stringy bark, and mahogany.
Do	Bachelor	Taree	14,587		A	2,700	
Gresham	Buccarumbi	Grafton	753		A	1,000	Ironbark, stringy bark, spotted gum, gray scrub box, gray gum, forest, oak, and tallowwood.
Do	Urania and Springbrook	Glen Innes	1,542		C	6,300	Stringy bark, messmate, woollybutt, tallowwood, cedar, pine, and blue, red, and gray gums.
Do	Urania, Springbrook, and Barool.	do	1,606	Boyd River	A	24,960	Cedar, tallowwood, stringy bark, mahogany, gray, blue, and red gums, sassafras, oak, ironbark, bloodwood, rosewood, and beech.
Do	Cowan	do	6,370		A	960	
Do	Alder and Marara	Grafton	6,479		A	11,000	Cedar, pine, and hardwood.
Do	Brothers and Newton Boyd.	Glen Innes	11,110		A	480	Cedar, beech, blue gum, rosewood, myrtle, sassafras, ironbark, etc.
Gordon	Belmore, Green Bank, Strathorn, and Hyandra.	Molong and Dubbo	1,096	Harveys Range Creek.	C	38,400	Ironbark, stringy bark, and red and white gum.

Forest reserves in New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Gordon	Newrea	Molong	13,669		A	538	Ironbark and stringy bark.
Do	Cardington	do	13,670		A	1,700	Ironbark and stringy bark; in lieu of Forest Reserves Nos. 3 and 3360, canceled.
Do	Benya, Rocky Ponds, and Hyandra.	do	13,721		A	19,000	Ironbark, stringy bark, red, white, and yellow box, gum, apple, and red pine; includes part of Forest Reserve No. 1365, cancelled.
Gordon and Narromine.	Calooma and Belmore	Dubbo	1,117		C	2,880	Ironbark.
Gregory	Dynong	Coonamble	1,069		A	470	Belar.
Do	Gandymungydel	do	1,355		A	2,150	Pine, oak, and gum.
Gregory and Leichhardt.	Gandymungydel, Tallegar, and Neinby.	do	28		A	2,500	Pine, gum, and oak.
Gough	Macintyre	Inverell	9		A	3,300	White gum, sally, stringy bark, and wattle.
Do	Yarraford, Louis, Boyd, and Wellington.	Glen Innes	746	Rangers Valley	A and C	11,348	Stringy bark and peppermint; 130 acres in Class C.
Do	Mount Mitchell and Llangothlin.	do	1,065		A	385	Stringy bark, red and white gum.
Do	Clive	do	1,185A		A	2,150	Stringy bark, box, and wattle.
Do	Robertson and Diehard	do	1,433		A	12,800	Messmate, tallowwood, stringy bark, red and gray gums, woollybutt, cedar, beech, and sassafras.
Do	Wellingrove	do	1,555A		A	835	Stringy bark, gum, and ironbark.
Do	Bald Nob, Mitchell, and Dichard.	do	3,446		A	23,000	Stringy bark, blackbutt, messmate, woolly. butt, and blue gum.
Do	Inverell	Inverell	13,814		A	628	
Gowen	Eriganorin, Breelong, Mundar-Dilly, Biralbung, and Yalcogrin.	Coonamble	1,690		C	35,000	Ironbark, pine, and oak.
Goulburn	Woomargama and Mountain Creek.	Albury	2,108	Mountain Creek	A	7,900	Stringy bark and red box.
Do	Craven, Glenroy, and Yarara.	do	2,422	Glenroy	A	6,634	Stringy bark, ribbon gum, and messmate.
Do	Hume	do	2,430		A	13,000	Stringy bark, peppermint, gray and yellow box, and apple-tree.
Do	Forest Creek	do	11,231		A	892	
Do	Coppabella	do	14,678		A	5,000	In lieu of part of Forest Reserve No. 2422, canceled.
Goulburn and Mitchell.	Jerra Jerra, Pulletop, and Maclean.	Wagga Wagga and Albury.	3,017		C	3,452	Stringy bark.
Hardon	Childowla	Boorowa	1		A	1,015	Stringy bark, messmate, white-gum, and yel-

	pity, and Douglas.			Douglas Range	A and C		A.
Hardinge	Clerk and Single	Inverell	3		A	3,000	Stringy bark, messmate, woolly butt, gum, box, peppermint, and apple.
Do	Barlow	do	635		A	1,500	Stringy bark, ironbark, red gum.
Do	Mackenzie	do	796		A	3,840	Stringy bark.
Do	Baker	Armidale	877	Camerons Creek	A	3,200	Stringy bark, ironbark, and red gum.
Do	New Valley and Chigwell	do	878		A	4,540	Stringy bark, messmate, woolly butt, ironbark, and box.
Do	Aston	do	939		C	600	Stringy bark.
Do	Yarrowick	do	990		A	2,008	Stringy bark, red gum, pine, and ironbark.
Do	Torryburn	do	991		A	860	Stringy bark, ironbark, and yellow box.
Do	Honeysuckle	do	1,016		A	1,120	Stringy bark and yellow box.
Do	Morse	do	1,129		A	280	Pine and stringy bark.
Do	Single and Clerk	do	1,261		A	4,000	Stringy bark, woolly butt, messmate, and red gum.
Do	Cameron	do	1,371		A	1,520	Stringy bark, white box, and ironbark.
Do	Torryburn	do	1,652		A	1,050	Do.
Do	Buchanan and New Valley	Inverell	1,654		A	5,180	Stringy bark, red and white gum, pine, ironbark, and peppermint.
Do	Skinner	Armidale	1,683		A	1,210	Stringy bark and yellow box.
Do	St. George	do	1,684		A	2,560	Stringy bark, ironbark, and yellow box.
Do	Everett	do	1,689		A	1,450	Stringy bark.
Do	Torryburn	do	2,827		A	2,500	Ironbark, white box, and stringy bark.
Do	Barlow	do	10,135		A	1,106	Stringy bark, ironbark, box, and red gum.
Hardinge and Inglis	Roumalla and Retreat	do	719		A	1,400	Stringy bark, red gum, and cypress pine.
Do	Balala, Roumalla, and Looanga.	do	1,587		A	6,400	Stringy bark.
Hardinge and Sandon	Sabraon and Sandy Creek	do	1,182		A	160	Do.
Hawes	Woko	Walcha	7,794		A	1,280	Cedar, rosewood, and blue gum.
Do	Woko, Dewitt, and Cobb	do	7,975		A	5,440	Do.
Do	Coolcumba, Myall, Togala, Nowendoc, and Mukki.	do	14,268		A	50,000	
Hawes and Vernon	Salway, Fletcher, Yarrawitch, Rushbrook, Mukki.	do	1,298		A	38,880	Stringy bark, woolly butt, blue gum, and messmate.
Hawes and Parry	Nundle, Dungowan, Vant, Rogium, Yerowin, Scott, and Myall.	Tamworth and Walcha	1,541	Nundle	A	13,070	Woolly butt, stringy bark, messmate, and gum.
Hume	Quat Quata	Corowa	19		A	437	Red gum and box.
Do	Morebringer	do	1,607	Morebringer	C	320	Do.
Do	Gordon	do	1,714	Coreen	S F	2,080	Pine.
Do	Collendina	do	1,788	Collendina	C	270	Red gum.
Do	Collendina and Corowa	do	1,854	Travelers Point	C	720	Do.
Do	Quat Quatta	do	2,068		C	29½	Do.
Do	Henty and Comer	Albury	2,201	Dudal Comer	A	5,084	Do.
Do	Sandy Ridges	Corowa	2,637		A	640	Pine.
Do	do	do	2,638		A	230½	Do.
Do	Hendy	Albury	3,003		A	675½	Yellow and white box and she oak.
Do	Sherwyn	do	3,117		A	200	Flooded gum.

Forest reserves in New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Hume	Quat Quatta	Corowa	3,125		A	47	Red gum.
Do	Sherwyn	Albury	3,248		A	45	Do.
Do	Quat Quatta	Corowa	13,676		C	115	Do.
Do	Collendina	do	14,904		A	105	
Hunter	Grono, Colo, and Hawkesbury.	Windsor	58	Wheelbarrow Range.	A	6,120	Black butt, ironbark, stringy bark, mahogany, oak, turpentine, bloodwood, and gum.
Do	Woolgan and Capertee	do	5,612		A	22,000	Ironbark, gum, turpentine, stringy bark, and cedar.
Inglis	Moonbi and Perry	Tamworth	1,269	Moonbi	A	17,900	Gum, stringy bark, apple, and pine.
Do	Winton	do	1,536		A	1,280	Stringy bark.
Do	Attunga	do	10,133		A	2,200	Pine.
Do	Congi	Armidale	13,199		A	640	In lieu of Forest Reserves No. 944 and 944 Extn.
Do	Moonbi	Tamworth	14,377		A	344	Reserved with a view to forming a wattle plantation.
Inglis and Vernon	Aberbaldie and Scott	Armidale and Walcha.	897		A	960	Stringy bark.
Do	Scott and Boulton	do	898		A	1,987	Stringy bark and black wattles.
Do	Bergin-op-Zoom, Ohio, and Congi.	do	1,008		A	1,783¾	Stringy bark.
Jamison	Bunna and Markham	Narrabri	4		A	3,000	Belar.
Do	Bobbiwa	do	6		A	2,100	Pine, oak, belar, and ironbark.
Do	Tarlee and Keera	do	1,267	Tarlee	A	7,000	Belar.
Do	Woolabra, Gehan, Manamoi, and Waterloo.	do	1,268	Eckford	A	26,800	Belar, box, and pine.
Do	Dobikin	do	1,571		A	120	Myall.
Jamison and Murchison.	Paleroo, Caroda, Pringle, Cougah, and Cowinangarah.	Bingara and Narrabri.	1,318	Rocky Creek	A	24,960	Ironbark and stringy bark.
Kennedy	Meryula and Hartington	Parkes	4		A	8,480	Pine, box, and bull oak.
Do	Carolina	do	7		A	1,200	Pine, box, belar, and bull oak.
Do	Strathorn	do	2,092		A	2,950	Box, forest gum, pine, and bull oak.
Do	Carolina	do	2,093A		A	1,700	Box, pine, bull oak, and rosewood.
Do	Albert	do	4,188		A	1,040	Box, ironbark, and pine.
Do	Minalong	do	13,859		A	5,265	Pine. Includes part of Forest Reserve No. 10561, canceled.
Do	Hartington	do	14,752		A	576	Pine.
Do	Moolara South	do	14,816		A	1,920	

[illegible]	Carwell	Coonable	21		A	1,700	Pine and box.
Do	Quanda Quanda and Carwell	do	22		A	1,800	Pine.
Do	Urawilkie and Willaga	do	831	Urawilkie	A	2,600	Pine and box.
Do	Neinby	do	1,167		A	1,440	Pine.
Do	Warraba East	do	1,173	Urawilkie West	A	2,500	Oak, pine, box, and ironbark.
Do	Carwell and Baronne	do	1,416		A	5,040	Ironbark.
Do	Carrarbear	do	1,657		A	960	Pine.
Do	Tooloon and Nelgourie	do	1,720		C	880	Do.
Lincoln	Murrungundie, Bald Hill, and Yarrinderry.	Dubbo	629A		C	10,850	Box and ironbark.
Do	Ballimore	do	1,034		A	1,600	Ironbark.
Do	Bolaro	do	1,597		A	840	Do.
Do	Dubbo	do	1,671		C	20	Yellow box; required for shade and shelter.
Do	do	do	1,672		C	20	Gum and yellow box.
Do	Lincoln	do	1,688	Breelong	S F	9,160	Ironbark and pine.
Do	Lincoln, Breelong, Breelong South, and Balladoran.	do	1,689		C	37,630	Ironbark.
Do	Breelong	do	2,001		A	370	This is an extension of Forest Reserve No. 1689.
Do	Beni	do	3,997		A	6,000	Ironbark.
Macquarie	Ralfe, Burrawan, and Queen's Lake.	Port Macquarie	33	Cowarra Extn	C	3,700	Tallowwood, ironbark, flooded, blue and grey gum, black butt, brush, box, forest mahogany, turpentine, spotted gum, and bloodwood.
Do	Cairncross and Redbank	do	34	Redbank	A	10,000	Tallowwood, ironbark, brush box, flooded gum, black butt, gray and blue gum, bloodwood, forest mahogany, and turpentine.
Do	Stewart	Taree	73		A	2,580	Tallowood, black butt, ironbark, flooded gum, gray and blue gum, brush box, bloodwood, mahogany, rosewood, and turpentine.
Do	Taree	do	80		A	150	Gum, black butt, and ironbark; suitable for fuel only.
Do	Beranghi and Lincoln	Port Macquarie	100	Maria	A	7,472	Black butt and tallowwood.
Do	Johns River	Taree	144		A	12,262	Tallowwood, black butt, ironbark, flooded gum, gray and blue gum, brush box, bloodwood, red and white mahogany, turpentine, spotted gum, and rosewood.
Do	Macquarie	Port Macquarie	233	Ocean	C	280	Tallowwood, black butt, ironbark, flooded gum, blue and gray gum, brush box, bloodwood, and turpentine.
Do	Cairncross	do	234	Redbank	S F	610	Black butt, tallowwood, ironbark, brush box, flooded gum, gray and blue gum, bloodwood, forest mahogany, and turpentine.
Do	Queenslake and Burrowan	do	235	Cowarra	C	3,840	Tallowwood, black butt, ironbark, flooded gum, gray and blue gum, brush box, bloodwood, turpentine, and stringy bark.
Do	Wingham	Taree	4,208		C	4	White cedar, gum, and plum.
Do	do	do	4,225		C	6½	Brush timber for ornament.
Do	do	do	4,226		C	7½	Do.
Do	Knorritt	do	8,235		A	20	Red cedar and brush timbers.
Do	Redbank	Port Macquarie	9,216		A	122	This is in effect an extension of the Redbank Forest, No. 34 Reserve.

Forest reserves in New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve. Number.	Reserve. Name.	Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
						Acres.	
Macquarie	Redbank	Port Macquarie	11,116		A	45	Reserved from lease No. 11117.
Do	Ralfe and Burrawan	do	11,352		A	2,060	In lieu of part of Forest Reserve No. 33, west and south extension, canceled.
Do	Ballengarra and Prospect	do	13,877		C	3,600	Ironbark, mahogany, gum, tallowwood, black butt, and black oak.
Manara	Younga South	do	475		A	2,880	
Menindie		Wilcannia	1		C	1,900	Timber within 2 chains of Stephens Creek.
Mitchell	Cuddell, Gillenbah, Wood and Corobimilla.	Narrandera	1,890	Gillenbah	C	12,608	Pine and box.
Do	Milbrulong	Wagga Wagga	2,722	Mittagong	A	6,200	Pine.
Do	Wanberrima	do	2,936		C	3,300	Do.
Do	Burrandana and Westby	do	3,063		A	8,307	Stringy bark, red box, and apple.
Do	Mundowy and Berry Jerry	do	3,232	Berry Jerry	C	11,200	Red gum.
Do	Hanging Rock, Burke, and Vincent.	do	8,232	Hanging Rock	C	6,850	Stringy bark, black, white, and mountain pine, currawang, and myall.
Do	Pulletop	do	8,874		A	1,350	Stringy bark and red box.
Do	Milbrulong	do	12,452		A	1,000	
Mitchell and Wynyard	Livingstone and Coffin Rock	do	1,873		A and C	2,160	Stringy bark and ironbark; 1,280 acres in Class C.
Do	Woomahrigong and Sandy Creek	do	1,874		A and C	3,680	Stringy bark and ironbark; 1,824 acres in Class C.
Do	Livingstone, Burrandana, and Coffin Rock.	do	3,293		C	12,800	Ironbark, stringy bark, cabbage gum, and apple tree.
Mitchell and Urana	Waugh, Clyde, Wood, and Birrigo.	Narrandera and Urana	3,053		C	3,320	Pine.
Monteagle	Bungalong	Grenfell	6		A	680	Box and pine.
Do	Dananbilla	Young	13		A	200	Stringy bark and pine.
Do		do	2,475		A	1,200	Ironbark and pine.
Do	Yundo	Boorowa	2,508		A	1,100	Stringy bark and box.
Do	Willawong and Gullalong	do	2,526	Calabash	A	1,050	Stringy bark, pine, and box.
Do	Bumbaldry	Grenfell	3,123		A	4,000	Ironbark, pine, and stringy bark.
Mouramba		Cobar	1,187		A	1,280	
Do		do	1,196	Crowe Creek	A	640	Pine.
Do	McGregor and Yanko	do	2,523		A	2,430	
Do	Roset and Priory Plains	do	2,705		A	2,867½	
Do	Flinders, Hartwood, Roset, Beloura, Hathaway, and Walker.	do	2,991		A	56,500	Pine and box.
Do	Knox	do	14,726		A	2,560	
Do	Ellis and Knox	do	14,727		A	700	
Do	Adams	do	[illegible]		[illegible]	[illegible]	

Murray	Canberra and Weetangera	Queanbeyan	129	Canberra	A	420	Stringy bark and gum.
Do	Currandooly and Fairy Meadows.	Queanbeyan and Braidwood.	162		A	2,420	Mountain ash, messmate, and gum.
Do	Jinero, Ballallaba, and Ollalula.	do	200		A	6,400	Brown barrel, messmate, ribbon gum, and mountain ash.
Do	Murroon, Warri, and Jinglemoney.	Braidwood	8,681		A	9,400	
Do		do	9,556		A	882	
Do	Pialligo and Goorooyarroo	Queanbeyan	9,847		A	1,340	Gum, box, and stringy bark.
Murchison	Delungra	Bingara	954		A	2,500	Pine, ironbark, box, and apple tree.
Do	Delingera	do	1,210		A	100	
Do	Paleroo, Pringle, and Rusden	do	3,061	Lindsay	A	24,500	Stringy bark, messmate, and gum.
Do	Boomi, Rusden, and Lindsay	do	5,668		A	6,000	Stringy bark and messmate.
Do	Gouron and Macintyre	do	14,157		A	1,440	Ironbark, white box, stringy bark, red gum, yellow jacket, and pine.
Nandewar	Bollol, Leard, and Wean	Narrabri	1,268	Back Creek	A	20,800	Pine, ironbark, box, and belar.
Do	Narrabri, Moonbill, and Killarney.	do	2,372	Narrabri	A	6,400	Pine, ironbark, and forest oak.
Do	Tulcumba, Yarrari, Vickery, Wean, and Brentry.	Gunnedah	3,974		A	17,300	Pine and ironbark.
Do	Yarrari and Weetalibah	do	14,442		A	776	Pine.
Narromine	Mullah, Back, and Triangi	Dubbo	2,726		A	2,600	Pine, box, oak, and belar.
Do	Triangi, Temoin, Goan, and Willidah.	do	2,727		A	4,560	Pine, box, and belar.
Do	Hervey and Mingelo	Parkes	9,972		A	5,000	Pine, box, yarran, ironbark, and bull oak.
Narran		Brewarrina	770		A	1,920	Gidgea and pine.
Do	Gunnawarra and Yarkieta	do	1,132		A	4,648	Pine and gum.
Do	Bogwarra and Bogeira	do	14,905		A	2,560	
Nicholson	Griffiths	Hillston	2,831A		A	1,920	Pine, box, yarran, belar, dogwood, and mallee.
Do	Russell, Sinnott, Moncton, and Chirnside.	Hay	2,865		A	5,601	Pine, box, gum, and yarran.
Do	Russell	do	3,782		A	315	Pine.
Northumberland	Congewai, Corrabare, and Dora.	Wollombi	46	Warrawolong	C	16,000	Black butt, blue, gray, and spotted gum, tallowwood, turpentine, mahogany, forest oak, and ironbark.
Do	Belford	Singleton	50A	Belford	C	2,832¼	Iron bark, spotted and gray gum, and stringy bark.
Do	Gosford	Gosford	63	Hogan's Brush	C	990	Turpentine, forest mahogany, blue gum, and ironbark.
Do	Mulbring and Teralba	Maitland and Newcastle.	69A	Sugarloaf	C	6,400	Spotted, blue, and gray gum. mahogany, stringy bark, ironbark, turpentine, and black butt.
Do	Olney, Stowe, Congewai, Dora, and Mandolong.	Gosford	70	Olney	C and SF	33,186	Spotted, gray, and blue gum, black butt, tallowwood, mahogany, turpentine, forest oak, and ironbark; 9,700 acres proclaimed a state forest.
Do	Gosford, Kincumber, and Tuggerah.	do	124		A	4,160	Blue and spotted gum, turpentine, forest mahogany, and ironbark.
Do	Eglinton and Narara	do	128		C	1,280	Blue gum, turpentine, mahogany, box, ironbark, bloodwood, and black butt.
Do	Narara	do	136		A	440	Blue gum, turpentine, mahogany, and forest oak.

Forest reserves in New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Northumberland	Wyong	Gosford	143		A	2,030	Black butt, gray and spotted gum, swamp and forest mahogany, turpentine, and ironbark.
Do	do	do	207A		A	66	Gray gum, turpentine, swamp mahogany, forest oak, and apple tree.
Do	do	do	216		C	9,700	Black butt, spotted, gray, and blue gum, mahogany, turpentine, and ironbark.
Do	Congewai, Quarrybylong, and Dora.	Wollombi	217		A	3,000	Do.
Do	Gosford	Gosford	3,797		A	65	The Gosford state forest nursery.
Do	Mangrove	do	5,310		A	970	Ironbark, bloodwood, stringy bark, flooded gum, turpentine, forest, and she oak, apple tree, and white gum.
Do	Mandolong	do	5,873		C	40	Within the boundaries of Olney forest reserve.
Do	Wyong	do	6,720		A	20	
Do	Dora	do	9,242		A	700	This is in effect an extension to the Olney Forest Reserve No. 70.
Do	Ourimbah	do	14,972	Ourimbah	A	6,150	Iron bark, turpentine, mahogany, spotted, blue, and gray gum, and black butt; in lieu of Forest Reserve No. 129, canceled.
Phillip	Price and Botobolar	Mudgee	30	Botobolar	C	5,115	Stringy bark, box, ironbark, pine, gum, and apple tree.
Do	Arthur and Dungeree	Mudgee and Rylstone	106	Apple-tree Flat	A	8,346½	Box, stringy bark, and ironbark.
Do	Wollar	Mudgee	125		A	120	Box, slaty gum, apple tree, stringy bark, and red gum.
Do	Moolarben	do	128		A	264½	Ironbark, stringy bark, pine, box, and slaty gum.
Do	Simpson and Nullo	Rylstone	168		A	800	Sassafras, whitewood, red gum, cedar, scrub myall, and river oak.
Do	Simpson, Nullo, Pomang, and Never Never.	do	6,337		A	3,616	Stringy bark, mountain ash, blue gum, white gum, and apple tree.
Pottinger	Benelabri, Dubbledah, and Gullendaddy.	Gunnedah	16		B	8,600	Pine and ironbark.
Do	Gill, Millie, and Wondoba	do	17	Haystack Mountain.	A	9,660	Pine.
Do	Brigalow and Goally	do	18		A	4,100	Do.

	Moredevil.	do	[illegible]		—	[illegible]	Stringy bark.
Do	Wondoba	do	3,947		A	2,877	Pine.
Do	Walla Walla	do	6,486		A	2,975	Pine and ironbark.
Do	Denison West	do	11,282	Denison Extension	C	6,500	In lieu of Forest Reserve No. 1271, extension, canceled.
Do	Gunnedah	do	14,441		A	2,500	Pine.
Parry	Nemingha	Tamworth	13,081		A	36	Reserved with a view to planting.
Parry and Vernon	Ainsley, Vernon, and Aberbaldie.	Walcha	896		A	3,997½	Stringy bark.
Do	Walcha, Glen Morrison, and Ingleba.	do	1,277		A	400	Do.
Do	Walcha and Glen Morrison	do	1,282		A	90	Stringy bark and black butt.
Raleigh	Newry, Valley Valley, and Nambucca.	Bellingen and Kempsey.	111	Nambucca	A	17,500¼	Black butt, tallowwood, bloodwood, and mahogany.
Do	Nambucca	Bellingen	4,780		A	2,500	Black butt, tallowwood, blue gum, ironbark, scrub box, and brush timbers; originally formed part of the Nambucca forest reserve.
Do	Bonville	do	7,569		A	400	
Do	Warrell	Kempsey	13,736		A	4,000	White beech, rosewood, black butt, turpentine, tallowwood, ironbark, gray, blue, and flooded gum, and mahogany.
Do	Herborn	Bellingin	14,641		A	6,600	
Robinson	Weltie, Yanda, Narri, Rochford, Bee, and Rankin.	Cobar	633		A	62,040	Box, belar, pine, and yarran.
Do	Mullimut, Mopone, Kaloogleguy, and Billagoe.	do	634		A	16,120	Coolybar box, ironwood, pine, mulga, and yarran.
Do	Hoskins, Cambelego, Davies, Linton, and Nyngan.	do	635		A	68,840	Coolybar box, ironwood, pine, mulga, mallee, and yarran.
Richmond	Myrtle	Casino	9		A	2,800	Ironbark, blue and red gum, tallowwood, bloodwood, black butt, mountain ash, stringy bark, and forest oak.
Do	do	do	10		A	1,100	Ironbark, tallowwood, peppermint, swamp mahogany, mountain ash, forest oak, bloodwood, and honeysuckle.
Do	do	do	11		A	2,800	Spotted and red gum, ironbark, tallowwood, mahogany, bastard box, mountain ash, and swamp and forest oak.
Do	Whipore and Myrtle	do	12		A	4,800	Red gum, black butt, ironbark, tallowwood, peppermint, mountain ash, and bastard box.
Do	Whipore	do	13		A	2,800	Ironbark, stringy bark, black butt, mahogany, peppermint, tallowwood, mountain ash, and oak.
Do	Camira and Poworpa	do	14		A	1,500	Ironbark, blue and red gum, tallowwood, bloodwood, black butt, stringy bark, and forest oak.
Do	Nandabah	do	15		A	2,750	Ironbark, blue and red gum, tallowwood, bloodwood, and black butt.

Forest reserves in New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve. Number.	Reserve. Name.	Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
						Acres.	
Richmond	Tatham	Casino	45A	Tatham	SF	500	Gum, ironbark, stringy bark, and brush timbers.
Do	Busby and Mongogarie	do	246A		A	18,600	Ironbark, blue and red gum, tallowwood, mahogany, forest oak, pine, cedar, and black butt.
Do	Ellangowan and West Coraki.	do	625	Coraki	C	3,900	Ironwood, red and gray gum, mahogany, tallowwood, black butt, and box.
Do	Gibberagee and Tabimoble	do	894		A	6,400	Black butt, ironbark, box, spotted gum, mahogany, tallowwood, forest oak, and stringy bark.
Do	Myrtle	do	973	Sandy Creek	A	1,200	Red, white, and spotted gum, ironbark, black butt, box, and mountain ash.
Do	Ellangowan and Darke	do	974	Nundabah	C	3,285	Ironbark, blue and red gum, tallowwood, bloodwood, black butt, etc.
Do	Darke, Ellangowan, and West Coraki.	do	1,137		A	12,610	Stringy bark, blue, gray and red gum, ironbark, tallowwood, bloodwood, and mahogany.
Do	Tatham	do	4,441		SF	168	This is an extension to the Tatham State forest.
Do	Donaldson and Doubleduke.	Casino and Grafton	10,571		A	5,900	Red, blue and white gum, black butt, bloodwood, mahogany, ironbark, tallowwood, apple-tree, yellow box, tie-tree, and forest oak; in lieu of Forest Reserve No. 895A, canceled.
Rous	Tuckurimba	Lismore	3		A	20	
Do	Cudgen and Condong	Murwillumbah	16	Cudgen	A	896	
Do	do	do	38		C	2,360	Six islands in the Richmond and twenty-two in the Tweed rivers.
Do	Billinudgil and Moobal	do	61		A	3,000	
Do	Moobal	do	62		A	2,700	Ironbark, black butt, beech, rosewood, bloodwood, tallowwood, etc.
Do	Dunoon, North Lismore, Whyan Whyan, and Blakebrook.	Lismore	249	Terania Creek	C	18,761½	Tallowwood, bloodwood, gray and flooded gum, brush and forest box, forest mahogany, black butt, ironbark, and turpentine.
Do	Nullum	Murwillumbah	250	Tweed River	C	18,044	Bean, beech, scrub box, tallowwood, cedar, rosewood, silky oak, bloodwood, and red gum.
Do	Terranora	do	256	Chindera	C	396	Bean, box, teak, cudgery, pine, cedar, and forest oak.

Do	Newrilbar	Lismore	763	Alstonville	A	930	Tallowwood, mahogany, bloodwood, yellowwood, and ironbark.
Do	Meerschaum and Pimlico	do	864	Uralba	A	46	Will probably be required for a trigonometrical station.
Do	Teven	do	1,036		A	312	Cedar, beech, and teak.
Do	do	do	1,126		A	810	Teak and beech.
Do	Lismore	do	1,173		A	50	
Do	Teven	Murwillumbah	1,187		A	600	
Do	do	do	1,188		A	50	
Do	Pimlico	do	1,191		A	100	
Do	Tuckombil	do	1,195		A	4,900	Pine and hardwood.
Do	Byron	do	1,198	Byron Bay	A	1,570	
Do	Whyan Whyan	do	1,200		A	5,200	
Do	Mummulgum	do	2,425		A	1,314	
Do	Berwick and Torranora	do	4,262		A	74,240	Red gum, mahogany, Moreton Bay pine, beech, cedar, quondong, box, ironbark, stringy bark, tallowwood, bean, bloodwood, and rosewood.
Do	Chillingham, Tyalgum, Worendo, Loadstone, and Cougal.	do	4,353	Macpherson Range	C		
Do	Byron	Lismore	6,929		A	80	
Do	Burwick	Murwillumbah	7,925		A	240	
Do	Chillingham	do	9,737		A	420	This is an extension to the Macpherson Range forest reserve.
Do	Findon, Cougal, and Unumgar.	Casino	10,728		A	16,000	In lieu of Forest Reserves Nos. 1153 and 4354, canceled.
Do	Nullum and Billinudgel	Murwillumbah	11,761		A	150	
Roxburgh	Cullen Bullen	Lithgow	60		A	4,512½	Stringy bark, mountain gum, and black butt.
Do	Jesse	Bathurst	77		A	5,120	Black butt, stringy bark, and white gum.
Do	Wells, Clandulla, Mead, and Rylstone.	Rylstone	8,064		A	2,850	Stringy bark and ironbark.
Do	do	do	8,072		A	2,330	This covers the same area as No. 8064.
Do	Castleton, Eskdale, and Yetholme.	Bathurst	10,562		A	2,260	Black butt, mountain ash, white gum, peppermint, and box.
Sandon	Exmouth and Tilbuster	Armidale	920		A	3,840	Stringy bark and red gum.
Do	Wentworth and Clevedon	do	921		A	4,760	Stringy bark.
Do	Springmount, Tilbuster, and Wentworth.	do	929		A	3,609	Do.
Do	Boorolong, Dumaresq, Duval, and Exmouth.	do	1,023		A	7,494½	Stringy bark and red gum.
Do	Boorolong	do	1,024		A	3,940	Stringy bark.
Do	Enmore and Merigalah	do	1,040		A	3,200	Stringy bark, red gum, and black walnut.
Do	Hillgrove	do	1,251		A	1,483	Stringy bark, red gum, white box, and peppermint.
Do	Dumaresq and Albert	do	1,264		A	800	Stringy bark, red gum, and yellow box.
Do	Urotah	do	1,419		A	1,200	Stringy bark and black wattle.
Do	Enmore	do	1,429		A	4,850	Do.
Do	Enmore, Lawrence, Merigalah.	do	1,437		A	15,880	Stringy bark, white box, and red gum.
Do	Armidale	do	3,443		A	212¾	Do.

Forest reserves in New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve. Number.	Reserve. Name.	Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
						Acres.	
Sandon	Shasta, Ferryman, and Hargrave.	Armidale	4,768		A	17,000	Stringy bark, black butt, red and blue gum, and box.
Do	Gyra	do	5,547		A	250	Stringy bark and black wattle.
Do	Tiverton, Mihi, and Enmore.	do	6,226		A	1,200	Do.
Do	Yarrowyck	do	6,489		A	3,400	Stringy bark, black butt, and yellow box.
Sandon and Inglis	Sandon and Congi	do	13,123		A	260	In lieu of Forest Reserve No. 1253, canceled.
Sandon and Vernon	Eastlake, Lawrence, Enmore, Ohio, Europambela, and Winterbourne.	Walcha and Armidale.	1,430		A	8,960	Stringy bark, red gum, yellow box, and black wattle.
Selwyn	Glenken	Albury	6		A	2,486	Messmate, stringy bark, and white gum.
Do	Tooma and Maragle	do	2,104		A	4,000	Stringy bark.
Do	Maragle	do	2,106		A	2,751	Do.
Do	Bogandyera and Welaregang	do	2,382	Welaregang	A	12,760	Stringy bark, messmate, and apple-tree.
Do	Burra, King, Beaumont	do	2,538	Burra Creek	A	7,996	Messmate, ribbon gum, eurabbie, and mountain ash.
Do	Maragle and Hay	do	2,855		A	1,950	Stringy bark.
Selwyn and Winyard	Hillas, Selwyn, Courabyra, King, Buddong, Beaumon, and Yellowin.	Albury and Tumut	1,961	Bago	A and C	62,574½	Mountain ash and messmate; 43,574½ acres under class C.
Stapylton	Careunga	Moree	1,306		A	2,700	Belah.
St. Vincent	Currambene and Nowra	Nowra	33	Currambene	C	4,480	Spotted gum, bloodwood, black butt, stringy bark, peppermint, and ironbark.
Do	Yerriyong and Jerrewangala.	do	44	Turpentine Range.	C	6,780	Turpentine, messmate, bloodwood, ironbark, and black butt.
Do	Farnham and Cudmurah	Milton	45	Red Head	C	12,200	Bloodwood, spotted gum, black butt, mahogany, turpentine, and ironbark.
Do	Tomaga, Mogendoura, and Mullendaree.	Moruya	99	Tomago	SF	6,078	Spotted gum, ironbark, black butt, mountain ash, peppermint, and redwood.
Do	Woodburn	Milton	129		A	500	Black butt, stringy bark, turpentine, bloodwood, and spotted gum.
Do	Mong, Milo, Seymour, and Coghill.	Braidwood	166		A	14,720	Mountain gum, mountain ash, white top, messmate, water gum, black wood, and sassafras.
Do	Tianjarra, Jerrawangala, and Little Forest.	Milton and Nowra	172		A	25,120	Mountain ash, messmate, mountain gum, sassafras, stringy bark, and bloodwood.
Do	Mogendura	Moruya	174		C	6,550	Ironbark, stringy bark, and bloodwood.
Do	Gobe, Mullendaree, and Tomaga.	do	6,215		C	5,300	Ironbark, spotted gum, black butt, redwood, stringy bark, bloodwood, and mountain ash.
Do	Farnham	Milton and Nowra	6,480		C	1,570	Black butt and spotted gum.
Do	Mogendoura	Moruya	10,311		A	195	Ironbark, etc.

							any, box, turpentine, sassafras, and beech or water gum. In lieu of part of the Nelligen Forest Reserve, No. 103, and Forest Reserve, No. 103, extension canceled.
						A. r. p.	
Do	Kiola, Termell, Albert, Mogood, and Currowan.	Milton	10,617		A	54,693 02	In lieu of part of the Nelligen Forest Reserve, No. 103, and Forest Reserve, No. 3959, canceled.
						Acres.	
Sturt	Brengagee, Wowong, and Benerambah.	Hay	2,989	Wowong	C	4,200	Red gum.
Do	Benerambah	do	2,990	Benerambah	C	600	Do.
Do	Toms Point	do	12,419		A	452	Do.
Tails	Mallee Cliffs, Bengallow, and Matalong.	Wentworth	15,050		A	22,000	Do.
Tandora		Wilcannia	1		C	720	Includes the timber within 2 chains of the Yancowinna Creek.
Do		do	2		C	368	Includes the timber within 2 chains of the left bank of Stephens Creek.
Tara	Moorna	Wentworth	383	Moorna	C	205	Pine.
Do	Taranga	do	525		A	295	
Townsend	Powheep	Hay	2		A	429¼	Pine, box, and dogwood.
Do	do	do	3		A	444¾	Box.
Do	Conargo	Deniliquin	7	Conargo	A	634	Pine.
Do	Edgar	Hay	15		A	192	Do.
Do	Palmer	do	16		C	84½	Do.
Do	Mundiwa	Deniliquin	1,404	Deniliquin	C	1,524¾	Pine, box, and myall.
Do	Ronald	Hay	1.458	Uroley	C	3,400	Pine and box.
Do	Morago, Kerranakoon, and Banangalite.	Deniliquin	1,792	Morago	C	4,497½	Red gum and box.
Do	Palmer	Hay	1,851	Wargam	C	1,280	Box and pine.
Do	Dunkeld	do	1,879	Steam Plains No. 1	C	1,080	Pine and myall.
Do	Moultrassie	do	1,880	Steam Plains No. 2	C	3,840	Do.
Do	Edgar	do	1,901		C	1,941¾	Pine.
Do	Campbell	do	1,902		C	1,239½	Do.
Do	Euroka	do	2,262		A	320	Gum, pine, box, myall, and willow.
Do	Wureep	do	2,747		A	791	Box; required for shade and shelter.
Do	Banangalite	Deniliquin	3,031	Baratta	A	651	Red gum.
Do	Wureep	Hay	3,034		C	189	Stunted box, pine, and willow.
Do	do	do	3,035		A	360	Stunted box.
Do	Edgar	do	3,156		A	800	Pine and myall.
Do	Nallam and Boyeo	Deniliquin	3,263	Gulpa Island	C	13,500	Red gum.
Do	Derrulaman	do	3,264	Tuppul	C	4,200	Red gum and stunted box.
Do	Towool, Bullatella, Coronalla, Bungooka, Tawarra, Narratoola, and Wounue.	do	3,265	Millewa	S F & C	61,492	Red gum; 6,400 acres proclaimed a State forest; the remainder Class C.
Do	Campbell	Hay	10,454		A	46¾	Pine; joins Forest Reserve, 1,902.
Do	Wargam	do	10,801		A	701½	Pine, box, dogwood, and willow.

Forest reserves in New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve. Number.	Reserve. Name.	Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
						Acres.	
Townsend	Campbell	Hay	11,329		A	55	Pine, willow, and myall.
Do	Edgar	do	11,330		A	40	Do.
Do	Wargam	do	12,059		A	1,703	
Do	Booroorban	do	12,609		A	175	
Do	Banangalite	Deniliquin	13,369		A	12	Pine.
Do	do	do	13,370		A	56	
Townsend and Wakool	Werai, Yadabal, Cochran, Balpool, Chowar, Barrabu, Gynong, Nyang, Jimaringle, Boyd, Wandaradgit, Toweruk, Worobyan, Neimur, Wetuppa, Mallan, Yadchow and Coobool.	do	2,125	Neimur	C	20,064	Red gum.
Do	Balpool, Yadabal, Werai, Colimo, and Tumbudgery.	do	3,262	Edward River	C	38,296	Do.
Urana	Yamma	Urana	1,456	Yamma	C	1,920	Red and white pine.
Do	Broome	do	1,648	Broome	C	320	Pine.
Do	Butherwa	do	1,695	Brookong	C	4,800	Do.
Do	Walooma	do	1,716	Walooma	A	1,280	Do.
Do	Yanko South	do	1,778		C	282¼	Do.
Do	do	do	1,779		C	551¼	Do.
Do	do	do	1,780		C	1,256	Do.
Do	Morundah and Lake	do	1,799	Colombo, Piney Ridge.	C & A	10,655	Pine; 575 acres under Class A.
Do	Clyde and Morundah	do	1,833	Morundah	C	11,630	Pine.
Do	Yanko	do	1,835	Kulkie	C	1,075	Do.
Do	Widgiewa and Urana	do	2,049		C	465¾	Do.
Do	Widgiewa	do	2,103	Boundary Gums	C	40	Red gum; required for shade and shelter.
Do	Yanko	do	2,138		A	808	Pine.
Do	do	do	2,139		A	623	Box.
Do	Palmer	do	2,216		C	1,500	Pine.
Do	do	do	2,217a		C	1,760	Do.
Do	Osborne	do	2,317	Osborne	A & C	16,616	Pine; 5,191 acres under Class C.
Do	Mair-Jimmy	do	2,587		A	3,100	Pine and box.
Do	Boororbanilly	do	2,588		A	3,380	Do.
Do	Lake, Morundah South, Mu-	do	2,598		A	6,065¾	Do.

Do	Palmer	do	3,105		C	3,340	Pine.
Do	Widgiewa	do	6,863		A	213¾	Do.
Do	Watt	do	7,645		A	154¼	Gum.
Vernon	Ella	do	1	Waloha	A	6,700	Stringy bark and blue gum.
Do	Boulton	do	1,006		A	1,560	Stringy bark and blue wattle.
Do	Fenwick	do	1,124		A	1,200	Stringy bark and red gum.
Do	Shelving	do	1,125		A	1,170	Do.
Do	do	do	1,126		A	720	Stringy bark, red gum, and black wattle.
Do	Winterbourne and Ella	do	1,204		A	7,470	Do.
Do	Winterbourne, Gill, and Ella.	do	1,354		A	25,360	Stringy bark, yellow box, and black wattle.
Do	Norton	do	1,616		A	1,100	Stringy bark.
Do	Fenwick	do	2,568		A	536	Stringy bark and messmate.
Do	Tiara and Norton	do	9,142		A	1,815	Stringy bark and hickory.
Do	Enfield	do	13,457		A	7,800	Stringy bark, blackbutt, blue gum, white box, and wattle.
Do	Emu	do	13,641		A	385	Stringy bark.
Wakool	Noorong, Gonn, Moorongatta, Belmore, Cobwell, and Beremegad.	Deniliquin	1,445a	Wakool	C	7,587¾	Red gum.
Do	Winter	do	1,454		C	1,600	Scrub.
Do	Murran, Toolmah, and Coobool.	do	1,786	Melool	C	2,366	Red gum.
Do	Wetupp, Cunninyeuk	do	1,787	Jeegur	C	5,401	Red gum and stunted box.
Do	Yarrein, Nyang, Benjee, Liewa, Moulamein South, Moolpa, Kyalite, Gerrabbit, Barrabu, Woorooma, Berambong, Niemur, Mallan, Yadchow, and Burrawang.	do	1,790	Edward River	A & C	11,148½	Red gum; 320 acres under Class C.
Do	Mallee	do	1,834		C	10	Red gum.
Do	Thelaka	Hay	2,032	Thelaka	A & C	696	Pine and yarran; 536 acres under Class C.
Do	Nunnagoyt	Deniliquin	2,066	Campbells Island.	C	6,400	Red gum.
Do	Belmore	do	2,887		A	312½	
Do	Wetuppa	do	3,103	Nanctree Lagoon	C	4,314	Pine.
Do	Gonn, Nunnagoyt, Barham, Whymoul, Danberry, Cangan, and Tittil.	do	3,258	Koondrook No. 1	C & S F	68,443½	Red gum; 21,396 acres proclaimed as the Barham State Forest.
Do	Melool	do	3,260	Koondrook No. 3	C	1,890	Red gum.
Do	do	do	3,261	Koondrook No. 4	C	2,240	Do.
Do	Nunnagoyt	do	3,268		A	1,502	Do.
Do	Miranda	Hay and Deniliquin	10,465		A	1,112¾	Do.
Do	Barham	Deniliquin	11,384			51	Reserve for planting.
Do	Miranda	Hay	13,211		A	320	
Do	do	do	13,948		A	140	
Do	Cockran	Deniliquin	14,636		A	265	
Do	Boyd	do	14,741		C	1,800	In lieu of part of Forest Reserve, No. 2125, canceled.
Waljeers	Merrimajeel	Hay, North	2,573	Corong	S F	480	Red gum.
Do	Howatson	Hillston, North	3,018		C	120	Required for shade and shelter.

Forest reserves in New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve. Number.	Reserve. Name.	Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
						Acres.	
Waljeers	Howatson	Hillston, North	3,019		C	320	Required for shade and shelter.
Do	Murnia	Hillston	3,020		C	80	
Wallace	Myalla	Cooma	204A	Myalla	A	1,600	White gum and peppermint.
Do	Wulwye	do	233		C	960	Messmate, white gum, and peppermint.
Do	The Peak	do	335	The Peak	C and A	650	White gum, peppermint, and apple tree; 250 acres under Class A.
Do	Gordon	do	379		A	700	Cabbage gum.
Do	Wallgrove	do	433		A	260	White gum.
Do	Bulgandra and Coolamatong	do	517		A	336	Do.
Do	Lake and Buckenderra	do	523		A	1,280	Do.
Do	Gordon	do	678		A	110	White gum and peppermint.
Do	Beloka	do	720		A	870	Do.
Do	Marrinumbla	do	726		A	526½	Apple tree, white gum, and peppermint.
Do	Adaminaby	do	760		A	500	White gum.
Do	Coonhoonbula	do	818		A	500	White gum and peppermint.
Do	do	do	819		A	1,100	Pine, white gum, and black wattle.
Do	Cabramatta and Chippendale.	do	822		A	3,300	Mountain ash and white gum.
Do	Numbla	do	827		A	600	Cabbage gum.
Do	Townsend	do	901		A	500	White gum.
Do	Arable and Myalla	do	902		A	450	Peppermint and white gum.
Do	Beloka	do	10,079		A	160	
Waradgery	Mungadal, Hay, Hay South, and East Waradgery.	Hay	2	Hay Common	C	11,547	Red gum and box.
Do	Dowling	do	1,623	Thelangerang	A	2,400	Gum.
Do	Ulonglo	do	1,823	One-tree	C	½	A landmark on an immense plain.
Do	Wirkenbergal	do	2,697		A	574	
Do	do	do	10,802		A	672	
Do	Pembelgong	do	14,669		A	150	Reserve from lease and license.
Westmoreland	Konangaroo and Jenolan	Lithgow	22	Council Chambers Flat.	A	15,360	Stringy bark, white gum, peppermint, box, and mountain ash.
Do	Alfred and Bindo	do	23	Lippys Creek	A	11,520	Mountain ash, black butt, gray gum, stringy bark, and peppermint.
Do	Balfour and Swatchfield	do	36		A	1,411½	Stringy bark, ironbark, red and white gum, and box.
Do	Bindo	do	83	Bindo	A	1,520	Black butt, mountain ash, stringy bark, gray gum, and peppermint.
Do	Vulcan, Mozart, and Belfour	do	90		B	7,000	Mountain ash, black butt, and gum.
Do	Bindo	do	100		A	2,284½	Black butt, peppermint, and gum.
Do	Speedwell, Cyclops, Gangerang, Tartarus, Murruin, and Merlin.	Lithgow and Camden.	101	Kowmung	A	62,000	Stringy bark, ironbark, turpentine, and gray gum, box and [illegible]

	Swatchfield	Lithgow	9,064		A	12	This is in effect an extension to [illegible] serve, No. 36.
Wellesley	Maffra	Cooma	250	Maffra	A	3,290	Box and cabbage gum.
Do	Burnima	Boombala	270A	Burnima	A	206	White and cabbage gum.
Do	Burrimbucco	do	282A		C	4,000	Cat-tail, messmate, stringy bark, ribbon and white gum, hickory, and wattle.
Do	Ironmungy	do	356		C	200	Cabbage gum.
Do	Wangellic	do	366		A and C	809½	Cabbage gum; 151½ acres under Class A.
Do	Boco	do	382		A	1,340	White and cabbage gum.
Do	Wellamore	do	284		A	570	Black butt, messmate, and white gum.
Do	Bungarby	do	390		A	1,280	Cabbage gum, peppermint, and box.
Do	Gecar	do	411		C	420	Cabbage gum and honeysuckle.
Do	Cambalong	do	422		A	1,000	Cabbage gum, box, and pine.
Do	Bungarby and Peters	Cooma	428	Snowy River	C	4,500	Pine, box, peppermint, and wattle.
Do	Cathcart	Bombala	457		A	240	White and cabbage gum.
Do	Nelson	do	491		A	40	
Do	Hayden	do	727		A	5,100	Ribbon gum, pepperminint, cabbage gum, black sally, and oak.
Do	Jettiba	do	747		A	300	White gum, cabbage gum, and peppermint.
Do	Ashton	do	828A		A	750	Black butt, mountain ash, stringy bark, blood-wood, peppermint, and white gum.
Do	Meringo and Merriangah	do	874		C	2,350	Ribbon and white gum.
Do	Lawson	do	1,075	Sawpit	A	4,000	Mountain ash, ribbon gum, messmate, pep-permint, hickory, cat-tail, and white gum.
White	Goona, Nuable, and Crowie	Narrabri	2		A	32,000	Ironbark, pine, and oak.
Do	Gurleigh	do	1,788		A	2,000	Pine.
Do	Nuable, Cook, Coghill, and Molluroi.	do	4,523		A	21,130	Ironbark, pine, and oak.
Wynyard	Murraguldrie	Wagga Wagga	1,705	Murraguldrie	C	14,000	Ironbark, stringy bark, and red gum.
Do	Gregrado and Womahrigong	do	1,871		C	1,280	Ironbark and stringy bark.
Do	Gregardo	do	1,872		C	640	Do.
Do	Bulalgee and Caraboat	do	1,918	Caraboat	A and C	26,400	Messmate, stringy bark, and box; 4,000 acres under Class A.
Do	Ellerslie, Green Hills, Dut-zon, and Hillas.	Tumut	2,040	Adelong	A	20,351¾	Stringy bark, messmate, box, and apple tree.
Do	Ellerslie, Euadera, and Ban-gus.	do	2,097	Euadera	A	8,320	Stringy bark.
Do	Woomahrigong	Wagga Wagga	3,009		A	2,708	Ironbark and stringy bark.
Do	Hillas	do	5,358		A	2,600	Stringy bark.
Yanco winna	Umberumberke, Bomangal-dry, Bray, Naradin, and Nadbuck.	Willyma	4		C	948½	To protect the timber along Umberumberka Creek.
Do		do	5		C	10,240	
Do		do	6		C	10,240	
Do	Albert and Victoria	do	7		C	2,560	
Do	Lewis, Mount Gippa, Ste-phen, Picton, Cathcart, Moorhall, Bolarra, Tara, Stratford, Maharatta, Coombaralla, and Charle-mont.	do	8		C	1,444	The timber within 2 chains of Stephens Creek.

Forest reserves in New South Wales—Continued.

County.	Parish.	Land district.	Reserve.		Class.	Approximate area.	Timber and general remarks.
			Number.	Name.			
						Acres.	
Yancowinna	Mount Gipps, etc	Willyma	9		C	1,568	The timber within 2 chains of Yancowinna Creek.
Do	Umberumberka	do	12,575		A	275	To protect the timber along Lake's Grave Creek.
Do	Purnamoota	do	13,800		C	65	To protect the timber along Wookookaroo Creek.
Do	Robe, Para, and Purnamoota	do	13,801		C	280	To protect the timber along Gum Creek.
Do	Mundi Mundi, Robe, and Lewis.	do	13,802		C	500	To protect the timber along Eldie Creek.
Do	Mundi Mundi	do	14,151		C	150	To protect the timber along Dense Camp Creek.
Do	do	do	14,152		C	170	To protect the timber along Mundi Mundi Creek.

TAXATION IN NEW SOUTH WALES.

Under the "diseases in sheep act" a tax of 6*s*. per thousand is im-
ed on sheep by government, and a district (local or shire) tax, vary-
according to the locality, but in no instance higher than 1 halfpenny
head, is levied under the "pastoral and stock-protection acts,"
ch is devoted to the destruction of noxious animals. Under the
ie acts a maximum levy of 3*d*. per head is made on horses and cat-
There is no taxation on improvements.

he first system under which the waste lands of New South Wales
e allowed to be occupied for pastoral purposes was one of yearly
nse, for which anyone could apply, the extent being limited by
ghboring stations only, the fee being £10 per annum for 25 square
es, with £2 10*s*. per annum for every additional 5 square miles. But
"occupation act of 1861" abolished this arrangement and inaugu-
d a new system, which in its turn was superseded by the "crown
ds acts of 1864 and 1869." Under these measures the colony is
divided into three natural divisions, split up into various local land-
rd districts, administered by a board composed of a chairman and
local members. Each board district is again divided into land
tricts, each of which has a government land agent, to whom all land
plications are addressed. Decisions of the local land board may be
ealed against to the land court, formed by a president and two
nbers nominated by the executive, whose judgments on any ques-
of law, but not of fact, may be referred for final adjudication to
supreme court.

he eastern division embraces 60,452,000 acres, including some of
best agricultural land in the colony, all the original centers of set-
nent, and the markets are more readily reached from it than from
other districts. Hence purchase and occupation of its crown lands
more restricted than in the central and western divisions. Certain
tions are specially reserved, but all others can be conditionally pur-
sed by anyone of, or over 16 years of age to the extent of 40 to 640
es, together with a lease of three times the area of the conditional
chase, provided the total area of the purchase and lease does not
ed 1,280 acres. The lease carries the right to purchase. The state
e is £1 per acre—2*s*. on application and the balance by installments
s. per acre yearly, with interest at 4 per cent the installments be-
ing at the end of the third year. Residence for about five years is
ted, and within two years the boundaries of the conditional pur-
se must be fenced in and kept in good order.

n fulfilling the conditions of residence and fencing on the first pur-
se, the selector can conditionally purchase another area of from 40
40 acres and take up a conditional lease, not exceeding in all 1,280
s; that is to say, may commence *de novo*.

Residence is not required for additional purchases, but the fencing conditions are maintained. Fifteen years is the period during which a conditional leasehold can be held, subject to a yearly rental fixed by the local land board. Where the residential condition does not form part of the agreement the terms are more strict, the area being limited to a maximum of 320 acres; no conditional lease is available, nor can any additional conditional purchases be made except for so much as, with the original purchase, does not exceed 320 acres. Permanent improvements to the extent of £1 per acre must be made within five years after date of the confirmation of the application, exclusive of the cost of fencing. The price is £2 per acre, the deposit 4*s*., and the installments 2*s*. per acre.

The central division, consisting of 55,460,000 acres, embraces the upper basin of the Darling and portions of the Lachlan, Murrumbidgee, and other affluents of the Murray River. So far this territory has been mainly devoted to pastoral pursuits. The conditions under which purchases can be made are the same as those of the eastern division, but the limit for each individual is fixed at 2,560 acres under conditional purchase alone or conditional purchase and conditional lease together. Without residence purchases and conditions are identical with those of the eastern division.

The western division has an area of 79,970,000 acres, all watered by the Darling River and essentially pastoral. Conditional purchases are not permitted, excepting in special areas, as its soil is adapted for any species of crop, only requiring water conservation, irrigation, and occupation to make agriculture possible. Pastoral leases in this division are fixed at twenty-one years, at a rental based on an assessment for seven years and a reassessment every seventh year, and if the land has been satisfactorily improved the lease is continued for a further period not exceeding seven years, whilst in the central division ten and in the eastern division five years are the terms of pastoral leases; in the last named, however, pastoral leases have run out. Occupation licenses are granted for a term of one year only to take up resumed areas or vacant lands, the application being made when applying for the pastoral lease a deposit being made of £2 per 640 acres, part of which may be refunded after the license fee is fixed by the minister and appraisement.

Homestead leases within resumed areas or vacant lands may be granted for twenty-one years in the western division, not less than 2,560 or more than 10,240 acres being the portions that can be thus taken up on payment of a deposit of 1*d*. per acre. Residence is exacted for at least six consecutive months during each of the first five years and, in two years, a fence must inclose the whole of the lease, although the land board has the right to grant exemptions under certain circumstances. If the land has been properly improved, etc., an extension, not exceeding seven years, may be conceded, but, at the end

the final term, it must be again leased by auction or tender, the outgoing tenant getting no compensation for improvements.

Scrub leases are granted for a term not exceeding twenty-one years, in areas of not less than 640 or larger than 10,240 acres to one person, the rental being fixed by assessment, every holder being bound to begin scrub-destroying within three months of getting the lease.

Lands subject to snow during certain seasons may be leased for seven years in lots of not less than 1,280 nor more than 10,240 acres, the yearly rental being fixed by the local land board, with right to seven years' extension. Lands of inferior quality or greatly isolated may be leased by auction or tender for twenty years.

An area not exceeding 10,240 acres in one block may be temporarily exempted from sale or lease if the holder of a pastoral lease applies for permission to search for water on land held under an occupation license. On the discovery of artesian water in sufficient quantity, said area can be held under a fixed lease for a time not exceeding the currency of the pastoral lease.

Annual leases are also obtainable for pastoral purposes in lots not exceeding 1,920 acres of any crown lands, by auction, tender, or by application, at a minimum upset annual rental of £2 for each 640 acres.

Residential leases of areas of not over ten acres of crown lands may be issued for fifteen years, within gold and mineral fields, to holders of miners' rights and licenses for residences, on certain prescribed terms as to rent, etc.

In the three divisions not over 200,000 acres of crown lands in the aggregate for the whole colony in one year may be sold by auction, the upset price being fixed by law at not less than £8 per acre for town, £2 10*s*. for suburban, and £1 for other lands; 25 per cent of the purchase money must be deposited and the balance paid within three months. Town and suburban lands are sometimes sold on more liberal terms, so far as the period for payment is concerned.

Any person on the gold fields, in duly authorized occupation, may buy such portion, without competition, at a figure decided on by the land board at rate before voted for town lands, £2 10*s*. per acre for suburban or other lands, and £2 10*s*. for any area less than 1 acre.

Special sales, without competition, may be made in the metropolitan district at the discretion of the minister and, in other districts, at that of the local land boards, in cases of rescission of water frontages, reclamation of land by adjoining proprietors, and in other special cases, such as on the shores of the sea, lakes, harbors, and rivers, as well as for cutting and removing timber from crown lands.

The following shows the areas held at the close of 1890:

Under pastoral leases	6
occupation licenses	6
conditional leases	9
homestead leases	7
annual leases	3
scrub leases	
Special and residential	
Leases under mining act	
Total	14
Add sold in fee simple	2
Grants for public uses	3
In process of alienation	1
Total	19
Leaving a balance of	3
To complete the total area of	19

ALEXANDER CAMERON
Vice-C

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sydney, September 14, 1892.

3. NEW SOUTH WALES.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT BAGGS, OF NEWCASTLE.

colony of New South Wales lies almost entirely between the -ninth and thirty-sixth parallels of south latitude, and between hundred and forty-first and one hundred and fifty-third meridians Greenwich. It is bounded on the east by the Pacific Ocean, to it presents a coast line extending over 700 miles from Point r at its northeast extremity to Cape Howe at the southeast. he point last mentioned, which is also the northeast limit of the of Victoria, it is bounded by an imaginary line running in a esterly direction to the source of the Indi, a stream rising at t of Forest Hill, a few miles south of the Pilot Mountains, one most conspicuous peaks of the Australian Alps. The southern ry of the colony follows the course of the Indi and afterwards of irray, into which the first-named stream ultimately merges, as the one hundred and forty-first meridian of east longitude. The ction of the Murray with this meridian forms a common point of ee colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia. he west the colony is separated from South Australia by the line one hundred and forty-first meridian as far as its intersection ie twenty-ninth parallel of south latitude, at which point New Wales, South Australia, and Queensland touch. Commencing point, the northern boundary of the colony follows the twenty-legree of latitude till it is crossed by the Macintyre River, one upper branches of the Darling, not far from the one hundred rty-ninth meridian. Thence it follows the course of the Macin- the junction of its tributary, the Dumaresq. Leaving the Mac- it follows the tributary stream till it meets a spur extending ie main dividing range to the junction of Tenterfield Creek and maresq. The boundary runs along this spur until it joins the ange; thence almost parallel to the coast it follows the dividing o Wilson's Peak, where the Macpherson range branches east- Following the last-named range, the northern boundary reaches st at Point Danger. The area comprised within these limits is ted at 310,700 square miles, or 198,848,000 acres. Excluding the covered by rivers and lakes, the area would be 195,882,150 acres, it 306,066 square miles.

ender a sketch of the system of sheep management practiced in outh Wales intelligible to any person who is unacquainted with intry, it is essential that as a preliminary something should be its climatic and physical conditions.

Occupying an easterly position on the continent, the colony of New South Wales extends sufficiently far to the westward to experience the arid climate of the interior of Australia. Immediately adjacent to the coast the land is generally low lying, but within 100 miles it attains rather sharply an elevation of from 3,000 to 4,000 feet and then slopes downwards towards the interior, where the surface for hundreds of miles is not more than 300 or 400 feet above the level of the sea. The rainfall conforms closely to the elevation of the country—heavy on the coast margin and on the high lands, where it averages from 40 to 80 inches per annum, and less and less bountiful towards the interior, until on the Darling River the annual average is from 8 to 12 inches. The latitude and the proximity of a vast expanse of land surface, which extends unbroken to within 15° of the equator, have the effect of producing a climate which, on the interior slopes, is hot and dry in summer, but in winter is singularly mild and equable. Snow is seldom seen, except on the high lands; but frost is frequent in the winter, when the Fahrenheit thermometer records a temperature as low as 24° or even 20°, though by midday it is no uncommon thing to see the temperature as high as 56°.

The climate of the coast country and for a considerable distance inland is too moist, and a large portion of the land too poor, for favorably sustaining Merinos. Sheep-breeding is carried on to some extent in the regions towards the summit of the coast range; but, as in the case of the country near the sea, the soil as a rule is unfavorable. On crossing the coast range, however, the contrast between the aspect of the country just entered and that left behind is very striking. Here the grazing and wool-growing capabilities are at once apparent, and further westward a still greater improvement is visible; so that, generally speaking, sheep do not thrive on the eastern watershed, and with few exceptions the flocks of New South Wales are pastured on the slopes draining towards the River Darling, where the mild and equable winter climate above spoken of prevails. Consequently they seldom suffer from cold and not often from wet weather or floods. Heat and dust and drought are their more frequent experience, though the loss from floods is occasionally heavy, and some districts are subject, especially in wet seasons, to such diseases as catarrh and foot rot. It is the heat and drought of the country which are its distinctive features and are most severe upon animal life. Protection from either extreme seems to be impracticable. There are at present no means of counteracting the effects of either protracted drought or excessive rainfall. Artificial irrigation is so rare and, it may be said, so rarely possible, as to be no assistance.

The flocks of New South Wales are therefore the natural product of the climate and the soil. They depend entirely upon the natural pasturage, which, too plentiful in moist seasons, when the seeds of some *varieties* of grass are very troublesome, at other times becomes scanty

in quantity and deficient in nutriment. Management can do but little to correct or alleviate either of these extremes, for it seems equally as impossible to feed off the superabundant pasture in good seasons as to irrigate for the production of feed in dry weather. Improvements in the system of water conservation and irrigation and an intelligent extension of the salt bush, cotton bush, and other drought-resisting shrubs may help to tide over a moderately dry season, but all such helps would be of little avail were this colony to be again afflicted with another such drought as it has experienced several times in the past.

Geologically the country on which sheep are pastured in New South Wales is very various. Sandstone, limestone, trap, and granite are all present, each producing its own varieties of timber and pasture, and more or less suitable for grazing purposes. Timber occurs in plenty on the higher slopes, but is more sparse elsewhere, and is seldom so dense as to prevent the growth of grass and herbage. There are large tracts, however, of scrub country where the undergrowth of so-called pine (*frencta*) or of varieties of eucalyptus render them unavailable for pasturage.

The better class of country is equal to maintaining a sheep all the year round upon an acre and a half in fair seasons, but in poorer districts or in those in which the rainfall is at a low average a sheep requires 6 or even 8 acres. Drought tells heavily on all classes of country, and the above-stated capabilities are in such times greatly reduced. Nor can it be said that there is much to choose in this respect between country where the average annual rainfall is high and that where it is less—all suffer severely. Very heavy losses of stock have occurred within the last fifteen years, but no drought equal in severity to that of 1839 has been known since that year. The country was at that time very lightly stocked, but if a similar visitation were to come again the loss would be incalculable now that numbers are so great.

It is not possible to estimate the actual loss of sheep from drought and failure of grass, but an approximation can be made as to the number of stock in the colony less than would have been the case had the seasons all been propitious. The following table shows the expected increase of sheep after all causes of natural decrease are allowed for, the actual increase or decrease during each year, and the loss which may be attributable to the season. Under this last head are included not only the sheep which actually died, but also the expected increase from lambing which was not realized. Out of seventeen years, over which the information extends, eight years only show no loss or loss so slight as to be inappreciable. On the other hand, five seasons of opposite character were experienced in which not only was there no increase, but an actual decrease, on the numbers of the previous year, ranging from 84,000 in 1876 to 6,255,000 in 1884. The loss on the year last named reached the enormous total of 8,138,000, a number larger even than the total of the flocks in some of the colonies of the group.

Table showing loss of sheep through drought and kindred causes.

Year.	Expected increase, allowing for all causes of natural decrease.	Actual increase or decrease.	Loss during season.
1874	3, 807, 000	+3, 807, 000	(*)
1875	2, 556, 000	+2, 556, 000	(*)
1876	1, 915, 000	—84, 000	1, 999, 000
1877	1, 802, 000	—3, 748, 000	5, 550, 000
1878	3, 958, 000	+3, 958, 000	(*)
1879	4, 583, 000	+4, 583, 000	(*)
1880	5, 336, 000	+5, 335, 000	(*)
1881	2, 947, 000	+1, 194, 000	1, 753, 000
1882	1, 797, 000	—477, 000	2, 274, 000
1883	3, 193, 000	+1, 801, 000	1, 392, 000
1884	1, 883, 000	—6, 255, 000	8, 138, 000
1885	6, 160, 000	+6, 160, 000	(*)
1886	3, 409, 000	+1, 348, 000	2, 061, 000
1887	7, 796, 000	+7, 796, 000	(*)
1888	2, 435, 000	—462, 000	2, 897, 000
1889	5, 339, 000	+3, 603, 000	1, 736, 000
1890	5, 880, 000	+5, 880, 000	(*)

*No loss, or, if any, very slight.

The following table shows the whole number of sheep in the colony at the close of each year since 1860, and illustrates the progress of sheep breeding:

Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.
1860	6, 119, 163	1871	16, 278, 697	1881	36, 591, 946
1861	5, 615, 054	1872	17, 566, 048	1882	36, 114, 814
1862	6, 145, 651	1873	18, 990, 595	1883	37, 915, 510
1863	7, 790, 969	1874	22, 797, 416	1884	31, 660, 321
1864	8, 271, 520	1875	25, 353, 924	1885	37, 820, 906
1865	8, 132, 511	1876	25, 269, 755	1886	39, 169, 304
1866	11, 562, 155	1877	21, 521, 662	1887	46, 965, 152
1867	13, 909, 574	1878	25, 479, 484	1888	46, 503, 469
1868	15, 080, 625	1879	30, 062, 910	1889	50, 106, 768
1869	14, 989, 923	1880	35, 398, 121	1890	55, 986, 431
1870	16, 308, 585				

The ratio of annual increase for the whole period is 7.7 per cent. The ratio for the period 1860–'70 is 10.3 per cent; for 1870–'80, 8.1 per cent; and for 1880–'90, 4.7 per cent; thus showing the operation of the natural law regulating the increase of species, viz, that the ratio of increase is inversely as the increase in the number of individuals.

The following table gives the number of sheep in the Australasian colonies and shows the proportion owned by each colony:

Colony.	Sheep.	Proportion of each colony to total
		Per cent
New South Wales	55, 986, 431	[illegible]
Victoria	12, 736, 143	[illegible]
Queensland	18, 007, 234	[illegible]
South Australia	8, 004, 642	[illegible]
Western Australia	2, 524, 913	[illegible]
Tasmania	1, 619, 256	[illegible]
New Zealand	16, 200, 358	[illegible]
Total	114, 078, 977	1

;overnment astronomer says:

vailable returns, it appears that the average rainfall for the whole colony ›ar 1891 is 31.56 inches, or 28 per cent greater than for the past seventeen :xperience teaches that about 30 inches is a good average for the colony, :emarkable how small an addition to this brings serious consequences. For an addition of 16 per cent makes the rainfall equal to that of 1887, a year g in serious floods and too much rain generally; and an addition of 19 per good year's rain makes the record equal to 1890, which was distinguished ›st disastrous floods that have been seen for a quarter of a century. The explanation of the fact that enough is so near to too much is to be found in nstance that the rainfall sinks into the ground very rapidly, and that the on is so great that the soil dries up quickly after rain.

her remarkable circumstance in this connection is the influence ;-barking of trees, mainly eucalypti, has upon the ability of the etain moisture and resist short periods of drought; as an in- in certain places there are now permanent springs that, before :king was resorted to, were simply remittent after rains.

of the grasses indigenous to the country are very rich in nutri- ıalities, but there are others which, besides being poor feed, are urious to lambs from the seed adhering to the wool and work- the flesh to such a degree that, if a change of pasture can not :ded while the seed is falling, it will destroy great numbers. introduced plants have so thoroughly established themselves as commonly met with as if they were indigenous. But few › have proven an improvement on the indigenous grasses, and e very objectionable, as, for instance, varieties of thistles (*Xan- inosum* Linn., *Carduus marianus* Linn., *Centaurea melitensis*, and others) or varieties of trefoil (*Medicayo denticulata*, wild, or *M.* . The thistles are eaten by the sheep in time of drought. The :hough useful as fodder for a period of its growth, produces a ich the sheep gather on their fleeces and which may depreciate ıe of the wool by as much as 4 or 6 cents per pound. These in- l plants spread over the country with amazing rapidity, and country, where areas are great and labor is both scarce and is impossible to eradicate or even to check the thistles, and ›ck-owners content themselves with more or less successful ef- avoid them while they are in full vigor and with what use of l they can get when the plants have died off for the season.

:age plants there are two hundred and fifty—one hundred and ht grades and ninety-two plants, exclusive of grades and in- plants injurious to stock.

› useful as a tonic for sheep on most classes of country in New Vales. After a few years' pasturing, most districts, except such the western plains as produce the salt bush, will repay the cost ıistering salt. It is largely used in the shape of rock salt, but e approved method is to lay bag or Liverpool salt in troughs, re placed in the paddocks under small sheds to which the sheep

always have access. The first cost of salt is about $14.60 per ton : Sydney.

Until within the last twenty-five years sheep in this colony we herded during the day in flocks containing from 800 to 2,000 and we driven home at night to a yard. The system was adopted in the ear days of the colony to avoid the ravages of the native dog or dingo, b it was subject to disadvantages which sheep-owners always recognize but which could not be avoided until with increasing settlement t dingo became much less numerous. It occasioned waste of feed, as well as waste of condition in the animal, in the compulsory da traffic back and fro between the yard and the feeding ground; and, t yards being permanent structures and never cleaned, the sheep suffei from the exhalations and dust arising from accumulation of excreta.

The use of iron and steel wire for fencing purposes brought abou complete revolution in the system of sheep management, and there : now but few stations where the run is not inclosed and subdivided i paddocks, where the sheep are at absolute liberty to feed as they l day or night. Their gregarious instincts lead them to feed and ca together either in small or large numbers. They ramble leisurely fr spot to spot as their fancy guides them, doing no damage to the past by excessive and repeated trampling, and they find their way to wa by night or in the early morning and camp in the heat of the day. T liberty and leisured ease they enjoy in fair seasons are complete, a they mature early and evenly. From the time they are lambed tl are unmolested, unless when the flock is wanted in the drafting ya or in the shearing shed. When a change of pasture is considered n essary, the change is only from freedom in one paddock to freedom another. On some stations, however, they are both shepherded a paddocked.

During 1890 there were—

Paddocked	54,188,
Shepherded	1,181,
Paddocked and shepherded	616,

The advantages of the paddocking system have been stated as f lows:

The country will carry one-third more sheep; the wool will be longer and sounc and the fleece as a whole one-third better; the feed will be cleaner and less liable grass seed; the lambing on the average of years will be better; the sheep will : crease in size; they will live longer and continue longer profitable; they will be fi from foot rot and other diseases; the expense of working the station will be less th a quarter of what it would be if the sheep were shepherded; and, finally, the owi will be able to devote the principal part of his time to improving his sheep, inste of spending it in attempting to manage a number of shepherds and hut-keepers.

The following table shows the percentage of lambing under both systems for the last sixteen years:

Year.	Paddocked.	Shepherded.	Year.	Paddocked.	Shepherded.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*		*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1875	73	68	1883	64	57
1876	61	54	1884	55	51
1877	56	50	1885	79	64
1878	83	74	1886	66	62
1879	78	72	1887	78	69
1880	81	72	1888	55	40
1881	63	49	1889	64	54
1882	59	51	1890	71	65

The proportion of sheep shepherded to those paddocked is yearly growing less. In 1880 one-tenth of the lambs born were from shepherded ewes; in 1885 the proportion was one-twentieth and in 1890 one-sixtieth of the whole number.

As will be readily understood, the size of the inclosures varies greatly. The quality of the country and the tenure on which it is held are most important matters for consideration, but a more powerful determination of the size arises from the water supply. In the districts best adapted for sheep New South Wales is seldom abundantly watered naturally. Large areas were unavailable for stock until wells were sunk or tanks constructed. In some parts the country affords better opportunities for wells or for surface tanks than in others, and the result is that paddocks are of any size, from a few hundred acres to as many as 20,000 acres in area. The runs held on lease from the Crown are generally situated in the western districts, and there the sparsity of the feed, as well as an insecure tenure, compels the sheep-owners to be content with inclosures of a large size; but in more favored districts a large proportion of the land is freehold, and it is under such tenure that expenditure in improvements of every kind is most liberal, and consequently that sheep management is to be found the most profitable. The smaller the inclosures to a serviceable size, the better for the sheep, and where the land is freehold the only limit to advantageous subdivision is the water supply.

And just here some notice of the tenure under which the lands of New South Wales are held for pastoral purposes seems to be in order. The occupation of the waste lands of New South Wales was at first allowed under a system of yearly licenses. Under the old squatting regulations any person was at liberty to apply for such a license to occupy runs the extent of which was only limited by the boundaries of the surrounding stations, the licensing fee being fixed at £10 per year for a section of 25 square miles, or 16,000 acres, £2 10*s*. per annum being charged for every 5 additional square miles. An act was passed in 1847 and another in 1861 materially altering the regulations. The system introduced by these acts caused various evils to spring up and led parliament to adopt in 1884 the measures at present in force. This act was supplemented by the act of 1889. Though differing widely from the former acts, these

measures maintain the principle of free selection before survey, and aim to give fixity of tenure to the pastoral lessees, which the old acts did not, and at the same time restrict the area sold unconditionally.

Under these measures the whole colony is subdivided into three natural divisions, each of which is further subdivided into various land districts. The administration of the law in the local divisions is entrusted to a local land board, composed of a chairman and two assessors. From the decision of this board an appeal lies to the land court composed of a president and two members appointed by the executive.

The eastern division has an area of 60,452,000 acres. The various provisions of the law would extend this article to too great a length. In this division are conditional purchases, conditional leaseholds, and nonresidential conditional purchases, varying in extent from 40 to 640 acres. In the case of a conditional purchase there is a right to a conditional lease of contiguous land, which can not exceed three times the area of the conditional purchase. The central division embraces an area of 55,460,000 acres, and the conditions are the same, except the limit of individual selection is 2,560 acres, with a corresponding increase of the conditional lease to three times the area. The western division embraces an area of 79,970,000 acres. Conditional purchases, except in special areas, are not allowed. Pastoral settlement in this division is encouraged in the form of homestead leases of not less than 2,560 acres, and of not more than 10,240. The tenure of pastoral leases in this division is fixed at twenty-one years at a rental determined upon an assessment made for seven years, and a reassessment every seventh year, the term of twenty-one years being susceptible of extension for a further period of seven years.

In the central division the term of pastoral leases extends to ten years, and in the eastern division to five years. In each case the rent is determined by assessment, but no minimum is fixed in any division, though the assessment rarely falls below 2 cents or above 7 cents an acre.

Upon the expiration of a pastoral lease the land may be relet or subdivided and relet by auction or tender, or may be resumed by the government, and all improvements on the land become the property of the Crown without compensation.

At the termination of a homestead lease the land may be again leased as such by tender or auction, but the outgoing tenant is not entitled to compensation for improvements. Persons who obtain homestead leases are, however, required to pay for existing improvements at a valuation made under the direction of the local land board, and such valuation is usually what it would cost to replace the said improvements, allowing for wear and tear.

As the great need of this country is water, as appears throughout this report—that is, a regular unfailing supply—it seems strange that greater efforts have not been made to obtain it from subterranean sources by means of artesian boring.

Since 1882 the department of mines has had at work in different parts of the colony a number of diamond drills and water augers, but for some cause this subject has not received the attention commensurate with its importance.

The boring operations by the mines department during 1890 consisted of 7,587 feet bored by the diamond drill and 497 feet with the water augers. A recent report by Mr. J. W. Boultbee, the government officer in charge for water conservation, respecting artesian boring, gives some valuable information and indicates that the subject is beginning to receive the attention it deserves. In 1889 tenders were called for 300,000 feet of boring, and the following tender may be regarded as the maximum rates for this kind of work: Surface to 1,000 feet, 27*s*. per foot; 1,000 feet to 1,500 feet, 35*s*. per foot; 1,500 feet to 2,000 feet, 40*s*. per foot; the contractor to supply all plant but casing, which is provided by the government. Hitherto the cost of wells completed in New South Wales has averaged 35*s*. per foot. A bore was sunk near Bourke to a depth of 1,467 feet and abandoned. Work is still proceeding with the Moongulla bore, which is now down over 2,000 feet. A bore some miles to the west of the above, down 2,042 feet, yields only 200 gallons per diem. There is another bore, down 700 feet, called the Nyngan, situated without or on the edge of the supposed Cretaceous formation. Great care has been exercised in the selection of the boring sites. They are not confined to any stated district, but in districts widely apart. Important discoveries of underground water have been made by private enterprise also. In 1888 the Federal Company put down a bore at Kerribree Station, near Bourke, and at 1,073 feet obtained a yield of 473,000 gallons per day. Artesian water was found in 1889 at Dunlop Station at 880 feet, yielding 600,000 gallons per day. There are now eight artesian springs utilized in the colony, including both government and private.

Public watering places are established on all the main stock routes of the colony, the construction and maintenance of which are vested in the department of mines and agriculture. These works consist of dams and wells, as well as artesian bores. At the present time one hundred and seventeen tanks, twenty-one dams and reservoirs, thirty-five wells, and six artesian wells are constructed, in course of construction, or contracted for. The tanks vary in size up to 5,000,000 gallons, and in depth from 15 to 20 feet. They are constructed so as to be fed during rainy weather by surface drains. The total storage capacity of the tanks and wells above-mentioned may be set down at 700,000,000 gallons, and the wells, if regularly worked, will yield a total of 400,000 gallons per day.

Stock are not allowed direct access to the tanks, but are admitted to troughs which are filled by means of service reservoirs, into which the water is raised by various methods—steam, horse, or wind power, as the case may be. From the wells the water is mostly drawn by whims

and self-acting buckets. The charges for water are: Horses, 2*d.* per head; cattle, 1*d.* per head; sheep, 1*s.* per 100 or portion of 100.

With regard to the character and cost of fencing and of all other improvements, the quality of the land and the tenure on which it is held determine. In some districts the fencing is of the lightest and cheapest construction consistent with the temporary nature of the tenure. In such districts a wire fence 3 feet high, of five wires of small gauge strung through round saplings or stapled onto trunks of trees which may cost £30 per mile, has to suffice. Elsewhere the fence will be 4 feet high, six or seven wires of substantial gauge, split timber posts, and may cost £60 per mile. The local supply of timber suitable for the purpose is, however, very often an important factor in the cost. On some of the best freehold estates galvanized iron netting, 1½-inch mesh, No. 16 gauge wire, is coming into use for boundary and even for subdivision fences. In rabbit-infested districts, whether freehold or leasehold, netting is the only efficient protection, and under certain circumstances such fencing is compulsory; but even where there are no rabbits a netting boundary fence is very highly esteemed.

Many schemes have been devised for reducing the pest, all seemingly so far of little avail. Tank traps, tip traps, poisoned sticks, poisoned water, hunting with dogs, rabbit-proof fencing, and similar other schemes have all been tried, but the rabbits seem to increase instead of diminish. By the rabbit act of 1883 rabbit-proof fencing, and also destruction of rabbits, was made compulsory in districts gazetted as infested, but the act of 1890 suspended the compulsory clauses. By the pastures and stock protection act of 1880, amended in 1887, a measure of local government was granted, local boards were organized, and local taxation imposed, the amount to be assessed by the boards for the purpose of destroying noxious animals. The preamble to the act will indicate its purpose:

> Whereas the depredations of rabbits, native dogs, and marsupials in many districts of this colony have inflicted serious damage and loss on stock-owners, and it is necessary, as well in the interests of owners and lessees of lands as in that of the crown, to encourage the destruction of such animals and of such others as may be found detrimental to live-stock pastures or crops.

This act does not conflict with the rabbit act subsequently passed.

The following table shows the yearly expenditure on account of rabbit destruction, with the amount derived from assessment and that paid out of general revenue:

Year.	Assessment.	General revenue.	Total.
1883	£490	.....	£490
1884	69,406	.....	69,406
1885	46,926	£88,128	135,054
1886	40,200	127,434	167,634
1887	47,518	161,916	209,434
1888	41,308	90,897	132,205
1889	47,726	36,359	84,085
1899	49,764	8,381	58,145
Total	343,338	513,115	856,453

For the destruction of noxious animals other than rabbits the amount of assessment for 1890 paid by stock-owners was £33,649, and the government subsidy, £7,885. The number of kangaroos destroyed during the year was 175,755; of wallabies, 506,137; kangaroo rats, 92,014; bandicoots, 997; paddamellons, 2,844; wild pigs, 5,992; hares, 397,439; native dogs, 9,955; opossums, 11,169; bilbees, 82; eagle-hawks, 2,429; crows, 9,149; emus, 383; rabbits, many millions. The loss of stock from native dogs is reported to have been 79,898 sheep, valued at £29,098, while the loss from tame dogs is returned at 57,653, valued at £24,606.

The reward paid for noxious animals differs greatly according to locality and is determined by the various boards. The prices paid were as follows: Kangaroos, from 1*d.* to 1*s.;* wallaroo, 1*d.* to 1*s.;* wallaby, 1*d.* to 1*s.;* paddamellon, 1*d.* to 3*d.;* hares, from 2*d.* to 1*s.;* kangaroo rats, 2*d.* to 6d.*;* native dogs, from 10*s.* to 60*s.*; pups, 5*s.* to 10*s.;* opossums, 1*d.;* wild pigs, 1*s.;* bilbees, 2*s* 6*d.;* eagle hawks, 2*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.;* emus, 1*d.* to 1*s.*; crows, 2*d.* to 6*d.*

Having thus given a general sketch of the conditions under which the sheep are managed in this colony, I may apply myself to some description of the method of management.

And first, as to the breeds predominant in New South Wales. The first sheep brought to Australia were brought by Capt. Phillip in 1788. No systematic record of the arrival of stock seems to have been kept in the early days of settlement, but between that time and 1800 there were some slight importations from India. The first introduction was for slaughtering purposes; but by the year 1795 John Macarthur, one of the first promoters of sheep-breeding in New South Wales, had accumulated a flock of 1,000, which were held in great estimation and gradually increased in value. He imported merino rams and ewes from the Cape of Good Hope and Spain, and it is to his enterprise that the establishment of the Australian wool-growing industry is due. Mr. Macarthur's flock became the foundation upon which other importers ingrafted sheep from almost every flock of merinos of any reputation in Europe or America and have produced the breed which is now predominant in the Australian colonies. Its characteristics vary according as the individual breeder has been induced, either by his own fancy or by the condition of climate and soil peculiar to his district, to aim at producing a wool of fine quality, or of combing length and freeness, or a combination of weight of fleece with size of carcass. But as no Australian breeder has adhered to any one type, but has crossed and recrossed with other families, the result is a gradual intermixture of family lines which may be distinguished as the Australian merino, just as the Saxon or the Negretti or the Spanish merino is known as a distinct type. Not that in the case of the Australian type purity of blood has been neglected. On the contrary, the best Australian flocks are the product of the keenest regard to the line purity of the sires introduced to them and to the subsequent use of rams whose pedigree is beyond question.

The climate of the Mudgee district seems to produce more favorable results upon the quality of fleeces than any other part of the colony and it is thence the finest merinos are procured. It has changed the character of the Spanish fleece. The wool has become softer and more elastic, and while having diminished in density, it has increased in length, so that the weight of the fleece has only slightly altered. The various breeds of sheep in the colony besides the merino are the Lincoln, Leicester, Downs, and Romney Marsh, and crosses of the long-wooled breeds, principally with the merino. In 1890–'91 the respective numbers of merino and long-wooled sheep and crossbreeds stood thus:

Table showing the number of sheep in 1890–'91.

Description.	Rams.	Ewes.	Wethers.	Lambs.	Total.
Merino.					
Combing:					
Superfine—					
Pure and stud	61, 867	766, 751	270, 223	406, 913	1, 505, 754
Ordinary	96, 650	2, 415, 693	1, 674, 301	1, 504, 344	5, 690, 988
Total	158, 517	3, 182, 444	1, 944, 524	1, 911, 257	7, 196, 742
Medium—					
Pure and stud	103, 686	1, 427, 415	484, 937	876, 227	2, 892, 265
Ordinary	178, 225	6, 959, 915	3, 503, 608	4, 237, 840	14, 879, 588
Total	281, 911	8, 387, 330	3, 988, 545	5, 114, 067	17, 771, 853
Strong—					
Pure and stud	51, 106	1, 192, 789	571, 984	716, 722	2, 532, 551
Ordinary	115, 823	5, 077, 386	3, 323, 421	3, 116, 202	11, 632, 832
Total	166, 929	6, 270, 175	3, 895, 355	3, 832, 924	14, 165, 383
Total combing	607, 357	17, 839, 949	9, 828, 424	10, 858, 248	39, 133, 978
Clothing:					
Superfine—					
Pure and stud	17, 994	322, 780	207, 070	212, 384	760, 228
Ordinary	33, 646	848, 171	626, 731	507, 601	2, 016, 149
Total	51, 640	1, 170, 951	833, 801	719, 985	2, 776, 377
Medium—					
Pure and stud	34, 423	534, 942	253, 325	349, 861	1, 172, 551
Ordinary	79, 557	3, 407. 233	1, 682, 761	1, 860, 367	7, 029, 918
Total	113, 980	3, 942, 175	1, 936, 086	2, 210, 228	8, 202, 469
Strong—					
Pure and stud	27, 112	677, 173	307, 708	449, 650	1, 461, 643
Ordinary	45, 247	1, 273, 371	1, 003, 205	767, 974	3, 089, 797
Total	72, 359	1, 950, 544	1, 310, 913	1, 217, 624	4, 551, 440
Total clothing	237, 979	7, 063, 670	4, 080, 800	4, 147, 837	15, 530, 286
Total merino	845, 336	24, 903, 619	13, 909, 224	15, 006, 085	54, 664, 264
Long-wooled sheep.					
Lincoln:					
Pure and stud	5, 274	41, 265	34, 835	30, 746	112, 120
Ordinary	6, 799	76, 113	62, 492	41, 278	186, 682
Total	12, 073	117, 378	97, 327	72, 024	298, 802
Leicester:					
Pure and stud	2, 800	25, 880	19, 401	17, 043	65, 124
Ordinary	7, 003	42, 501	50, 415	30, 345	128, 264
Total	9, 803	68, 381	69, 816	47, 388	193, 388

Table showing the number of sheep in 1890–'91—Continued.

Description.	Rams.	Ewes.	Wethers.	Lambs.	Total.
Long-wooled sheep—Continued.					
Downs:					
Pure and stud	881	5,260	4,424	3,905	14,470
Ordinary	769	8,778	7,119	6,483	23,149
Total	1,650	14,038	11,543	10,388	37,619
Romney Marsh:					
Pure and stud	15	27	.....	30	72
Ordinary	39	81	.....	40	160
Total	54	108	.....	70	232
Total long-wooled	21,580	199,905	178,686	129,870	530,041
Crosses.					
Long-wooled with merino principally	4,982	269,916	332,278	184,950	792,126
Grand total	871,898	25,373,440	14,420,188	15,320,905	55,986,431

The number of sheep and cattle runs in the colony during the year 1890 was 40,802, of which 33,605 were inclosed and 7,497 were open or uninclosed. Of the inclosed runs 21,775 were subdivided into paddocks and 11,830 were only partially subdivided. The area comprised in these holdings was 185,000,000 acres, about 35,000,000 acres being freehold and 150,000,000 acres leased from the State. The improvements effected on pastoral estates for fencing and watering stock have been valued at £72,982,086, or about $360,000,000. Of this sum fencing absorbs £63,173,784, representing 1,478,818 miles at an average rate of about $130 per mile. The dams for watering stock number 30,580, which, at an average of value of £99 7*s*, gives a total value of £3,038,664. There are 30,953 excavated tanks, worth on an average £195 11*s*, or n all £6,053,034, while the number of wells sunk or bored number ,599, the average value of each well being £199 2*s*, and the total alue of all wells being £716,604. These figures represent the first cost, e present value of all improvements being £30,400,000. The total pital value of pastoral property in the colony, including land improvements and plant, as well as stock, was estimated at the beginng of 1891 at £137,667,000, of which £71,860,000 represents the value land, £35,187,000 stock, and the remainder improvements and plant. English long-wooled varieties have been tried in Australia for crossg with the Merino, principally with the view of producing lambs for e butcher, for which purpose the first and second crosses have frently proved successful, but, as a rule, the advantages of such a oss go no further.

As disclosed by the above table, there are but few pure English long ools in New South Wales; but in New Zealand, I am informed, they nstitute the predominant breed.

The following table shows the export and import of sheep during the years 1881–1890.

Year.	Imports.	Exports.
1881	196, 329	1, 068, 36[illegible]
1882	207, 538	856, 19[illegible]
1883	205, 558	1, 006, 22[illegible]
1884	404, 371	1, 942, 20[illegible]
1885	1, 134, 439	1, 237, 15[illegible]
1886	288, 225	1, 247, 51[illegible]
1887	864, 313	1, 218, 50[illegible]
1888	254, 018	2, 327, 40[illegible]
1889	832, 565	1, 217, 325
1890	598, 077	2, 987, 90[illegible]

The importation of stud sheep from foreign countries, notably America, Germany, and France, which was continued for many years after the superfine quality of Australian wool had been established in the markets of the world, practically ceased even before the importation was legally prohibited, for it became apparent that the fleece, instead of deteriorating under the influence of the climate, had, on the whole, a tendency to improve. The introduction of sheep and cattle into New South Wales was forbidden for many years, owing entirely to the fear of the stock-owners that their herds would be contaminated by scab and other diseases; but these restrictions were removed at the beginning of the year 1880 and 217 pure-bred sheep, comprising 178 American merinos, 23 German merinos, and 16 English stud sheep arrived in 1890, in addition to 7,821 stud sheep from other parts of Australia. Imported sheep are required to remain two months in quarantine if not infected and six months if infected.

On the whole, the colony is remarkably free from disease as regards sheep. Scab, it is stated, is unknown in this colony and has been for some time, and indeed in the whole of Australasia, except New Zealand and western Australia. Foot rot was reported in thirty-six districts off New South Wales, attributed to wet seasons, running on low rich pasture, and contagion. Fluke was reported in nine districts through pasturing on low, swampy ground, unsound country, and rank pasture. The sheep in thirty-seven districts, to the extent of 18 per cent, were reported to have been infested with worms.

The diseases in sheep act of 1866, amended in 1878 and again in 1882, provides stringent regulations in the case of any flock becoming diseased. It is incumbent upon the owner to give notice under a heavy penalty, and in addition there are inspectors whose duty it is to look out for disease in sheep. The sheep, if found diseased, are quarantined and, in some cases, destroyed, compensation being allowed in the latter case.

Reference has been made to the dingo and the trouble and annoyance, as well as expense, it caused sheep-owners in the earlier days of sheep-raising; but of late years a pest has appeared in the shape of

the rabbit, before which all other hindrances to profitable sheep-breeding, with the possible exception of drought, sink into insignificance. Not many years ago an enthusiast in acclimatization brought a pair of rabbits into Australia. He succeeded in effectually demonstrating that Australia was a splendid place for the rapid growth of an animal that is not desirable. The original pair of apparently harmless bunnies has been the direful spring of woes unnumbered to the Australian squatter and has placed a burden of taxation of the most serious kind on all the Australian governments. The first introduction of this pest was one of the greatest blows which could have been directed against the prosperity of interior Australia. Life in the west was hard enough and its rewards sufficiently uncertain before the advent of the pest, and matters have now come to such a pass that the question is whether man or rabbits shall prevail in many parts of the country. There can be no doubt the eating up of every green thing in portions of the colony has forced many to abandon their runs. This makes it all the harder for those who remain and who see their places overrun by the overflow from abandoned "squatteries," now little better than huge rabbit warrens.

The governor of New South Wales recently made a trip of inspection through the rabbit-infested district and the sights beheld would appear marvelous to the average stranger. Triumphal arches of dead rabbits and roads entirely covered with them were not infrequent.

To provide a fund for carrying out the provisions of the act and to defray the expenses in connection therewith, an annual contribution of £1 for every 1,000 sheep or portion of 1,000 belonging to any owner is levied. No contribution is exacted where a person does not own more than 500.

The system of management of sheep prevailing in New South Wales is now, as has been before stated, almost universally paddock feeding. The sheep is lambed and lives all its life entirely under natural conditions. The ewes ready to lamb have no more need of protection from the weather than any other class of sheep, and the one anxiety of the sheep-owner is to provide them with paddocks supplying good feed and sufficient water. He will have regard in his selection of paddocks to the natural shelter of timber; but, so far from his attempting thatched fences or sheds with the assistance and oversight of skilled shepherds usual at such seasons elsewhere, his principal care is to prevent his flock from being disturbed or interfered with in any way. The ewe's natural habits and instincts are relied on to insure successful parturition and maternal care of the lamb, and, unless circumstances such as insufficient feed or untoward seasons are met with, the loss during lambing either of ewes or lambs is very insignificant.

The lambing season lasts from 6 to 8 weeks, and as soon as the youngest lambs are from a fortnight to 4 weeks old the flock is mustered to a yard within their paddock for the purpose of ear-marking and tailing

the lambs, after which they are left undisturbed till required fo ing.

Weaning takes place when the lambs are from 4 to 5 mon Ewes and wethers are then separated and turned into fresh pa At the age of 12 months the ewe hoggets are passed through tl ing yards, when a proportion varying from 20 to 30 per cent i and cast for sale as not being sufficiently up to standard to bre

The remainder is allowed to run another year, when a further to the extent of from 10 to 15 per cent takes place, and the divided into two classes for breeding. When the ewes are a years old rams are mixed with them in the proportion of 1½ t cent. During the time the rams are with them the flock is occa put together, and if the sheep are in fair condition it will be f lambing time that most of them are with lamb. The ewes acco produce their first lamb at 3 years of age. The practice is to ta or, at the most, five lambs only, after which the ewes are cul cast as being too old to be profitably bred from any longer.

In stud flocks, where individual pedigrees are a necessity, e has his own separate lot of ewes, which have access to no oth Each stud ewe has a distinguishing label, and, her lamb havi received a distinguishing mark while quite young, the requis terial for a register is then carefully recorded.

To give the lambs their distinguishing marks requires constan vision and care; but, as stud flocks are usually of small numl necessary work can be done without much disturbance to the m

The stock returns for the current year show a considerable i upon those of 1890. The grand total of sheep returned and es at the beginning of 1892 was 60,788,904, or an increase on the p year of 4,802,472. The average estimate of lambing is about cent, though that is a low figure for some districts, as 80 per not considered high where circumstances are at all favorable.

To go back to the culling of the ewes at 12 months and 2 years the object is to weed out inferior sheep and so keep up the st quality of the flock as well as to prevent overstocking. Ill-g deformed sheep are culled without mercy; the quality of the wo the length, density, and evenness, the character of the wool, th age, style, and frame of the ewe have all to be attended to. T is done year after year by the same man, who, working continuou steadily towards one and the same ideal, has the satisfaction of gradual improvement in the direction he is aiming at. Necessari individual who goes to the work of sheep-classing has his own a perfect sheep, but he must take into account the circumsta climate, pastures, and soil and adapt his views to the practical tion under which his flock has to exist. It is generally the ca the most successful breeder is the man who with the requisite s judgment can either do the work of classing his own sheep or s *tend its being* done. It does not often happen that when a floc

tablished repute passes from the control and management which has made it a success the new owner maintains its preëminence. He can not entirely identify himself with the aims of his predecessor or he fancies he can improve upon them, and the result in the majority of instances is that he has the mortification of seeing his flock deteriorate.

Some sheep-owners shear their lambs at about 5 or 6 months of age; others take the first fleece when the lambs have become hoggets and are from 15 to 18 months old.

Shearing takes place once a year, generally in New South Wales in the months between July and November. Some years ago it was customary to wash the sheep, and considerable expenditure was incurred in providing means of doing this with hot-water soak tanks and high-pressure spouts. Latterly washing has been generally discontinued, and the greater part of the sheep in the colony are shorn in grease, though in a few instances the wool is subsequently scoured on the station or at the northern scouring works.

The tendency to shear in grease is no doubt owing to the fact that freights are now much lower than formerly, and, besides, the price obtained for washed wool in excess of greasy is not commensurate with the cost of washing.

The two following tables show the number of sheep shorn and the average weight of fleece, in grease or otherwise, for the past ten years:

Table showing the number of sheep shorn from 1880 to 1890.

Year.	Sheep.				Lambs.	
	In grease.	Hand and spout washed.	Creek washed.	Scoured.	In grease.	Washed.
1880	25, 298, 211	1, 015, 556	6, 164. 859	2, 660. 141	.....	.....
1881	29, 485. 675	398, 800	2, 415, 714	739, 592	3, 129, 995	155, 939
1882	29, 505, 143	273, 600	1, 780, 984	323, 900	3, 814, 788	102, 300
1883	30, 075, 145	317, 375	2, 156, 874	149, 468	4, 833, 437	83, 241
1884	24, 110, 459	306, 908	801, 408	307, 950	3, 010, 459	80, 990
1885	28, 324, 595	38, 000	642, 424	267, 250	4, 113, 383	42, 584
1886	29, 446, 157	36, 645	494, 544	965, 874	5, 535, 350	62, 100
1887	31, 082, 201	90, 000	647, 945	554. 687	8, 135. 458	123, 745
1888	35, 426, 832	.....	416, 779	875, 280	6, 053. 509	23, 756
1889	36, 553, 856	80, 000	475, 254	1, 446, 105	6, 790, 889	74, 603
1890	40, 935, 736	.....	1, 271, 712	580, 794	9, 285, 871	33, 521

Table showing the average weight of fleece from 1880 to 1890.

Year.	Sheep.								Lambs.			
	In grease.		Hand and spout washed.		Creek washed.		Scoured.		In grease.		Washed.	
	Lb.	*Oz.*	*Lb.*	*Oz.*	*Lb.*	*Oz.*	*Lb.*	*Oz.*	*Lb.*	*Oz.*	*Lb.*	*Oz.*
1880	5	7	2	14	3	3¾	2	9½	.....		.....	
1881	5	0	2	12¼	2	12½	2	8½	2	1	1	8¼
1882	5	0	3	0	2	14	2	9½	1	14½	1	4¾
1883	5	2	3	0	3	0	2	12	1	14	1	6
1884	5	0	3	3	2	15	2	14	1	13	1	6
1885	5	7½	3	4	3	2	3	0	1	12	1	8
1886	5	5¾	3	6	3	0¼	2	14	1	9¼	1	3½
1887	5	9	3	12	3	1½	2	14	1	12½	1	5
1888	5	6½	.....		3	1½	2	9½	1	11	1	7
1889	5	13½	4	2	3	3	2	14	1	11½	1	9
1890	5	11¾	.....		3	2	3	4½	1	14¼	1	7½

The average weight of each fleece in an ordinary flock clipped in the grease in the better wool-growing districts of the colony may be stated at from 6½ to 8 pounds, but these weights are not reached in the western areas. The average of the clip for 1891 is: Lambs shorn in grease, 1 pound 14⅓ ounces; sheep, 5 pounds 10¾ ounces. In good stud flocks the ewes will clip from 8 to 12 pounds and the rams from 12 to 18 pounds.

Machine shears are in favor with many sheep-owners, but the majority consider that improvements may still be expected and are content in the meantime to use the old-fashioned hand shears. Of the machines in use the "Wolsley" appears to find the greatest favor.

Either with the machine or with the hand shears, each shearer will clip from 60 to 100 sheep per day, for which he is paid at the rate of 4*s.* per score. From my own observations, I should say better and cleaner work, with less damage to the sheep, is done by the machines than with the hand shears.

The fleece as soon as shorn is taken to the skirting table, where it is skirted, rolled, and tied under the supervision of the wool-classer, who afterwards sorts it, that is, he puts it into one of perhaps eight or ten different bins or baskets, from which the pressers fill the bale.

The proportion of skirting depends a good deal on the freedom of the sheep from burr or seed, but would seldom be less than 20 per cent under the most favorable conditions. It occasionally happens that the wool is so much coated and matted with burr that there is no object in skirting it at all. The advantages of skirting are obvious, as otherwise the whole fleece would be depreciated in value to the price of the small portion containing the burrs or seed. It has been practiced in this country almost from the beginning of the wool trade. The difference in price between skirts and unskirted wool is about 7 cents.

The bales used for packing are either Dundee or Calcutta make. The former cost 2*s.* 9*d.* each in London; the latter can be obtained direct from India at considerably less. From 250 to 450 pounds of wool is the usual weight of a bale 27 by 27 by 54 inches. The cost of baling is 4*d.* per 100 pounds. The wool is almost always dumped before it is shipped, three bales being pressed into the space of two unpressed bales. Each bale is marked according to its contents, indicating clearly the portion of the fleece it contains.

A large proportion of the clip of the colony is sent to London for sale; but of late years the quantity disposed of in the local markets has increased rapidly, and the tendency of the trade is still in that direction, as it is advantageous to American and continental buyers to ship direct.

The total amount of wool exported for 1890, representing the weight if shorn in grease, was 269,686,034 pounds. Much of the wool produced in New South Wales is sent to Melbourne and Adelaide for shipment to Europe. The proportion of the clip for 1890 reaching other than New South Wales ports was 33.98 per cent.

The quantity and value of wool, the produce of each of the various olonies of Australasia, exported during the year 1890 was as follows:

Colony.	Quantity in grease.	Value.
	Pounds.	
ew South Wales	269, 686, 034	£8, 991, 396
ictoria	61, 479, 872	2, 743, 364
ueensland	64, 996, 642	2, 524, 742
outh Australia	42, 655, 311	1, 358, 725
Vestern Australia	6, 969, 380	261, 352
asmania	8, 984, 281	419, 173
ew Zealand	118, 762, 056	4, 150, 599
Total	573, 533, 576	20, 449, 351

The general strike of 1890 had a very marked effect on the wool industry. In some cases the sheep remained unshorn until long after the usual time, and in many others the wool did not leave the stations until after the close of the year; so that from these causes the clip of 1890, judged by the weight exported, was apparently less than that of the previous year, though the number of stock pastured was larger.

It is claimed, as far as the fleece is concerned, that the Australian merino has little to gain by any further admixture of European or American blood; but it is admitted that there is room for improvement in the physique of the animal.

It is a mooted question as to whether the climate of New South Wales is more adapted to the production of a combing than a clothing wool, although the former is looked upon with most favor by the wool growers.

To return to the wool after it is baled on the station. It then has to be carried to the railway in wagons, a distance varying from a few hundred yards to over 300 miles. During wet seasons the roads are impassable, and the forwarding of the wool is delayed. It is difficult to give an estimate of the cost of this hauling, as the work is done by regularly employed hands and with horses and wagons owned on the stations. The carriage by railway is about 3½*d.* per ton per mile. There is no special concession granted by the railway for the carriage of wool, only a regular tariff for that particular commodity. The cost of shipping to London or Antwerp by steam is from eight-sixteenths to eleven-sixteenths of a penny per pound, and by sail from seven-sixteenths to nine-sixteenths of a penny per pound, from either Sydney or Newcastle. It is hard to give the cost of shipping by sail from Sydney or Melbourne o Boston, as the vessel is usually chartered for a lump sum, but the ate may be roughly estimated at from four-fifths of a cent to 1 cent er pound. Boston is as yet practically the only American port to hich Australian wool is shipped, and sailing vessels only are emloyed for the purpose.

The average time for steamers from Sydney to London or Antwerp rect is about fifty days, and for sailing vessels from ninety to one ndred days. From Melbourne or Sydney to Boston it usually takes sailing vessel from ninety-five to one hundred and five days.

There was a larger export of wool to America from Australia during the year 1891–'92 than has ever before taken place, and no American buyers are coming to Australia, instead of going to L for Australian wools the export bids fair to become larger each ring season. Considering the fact that so much Australian w used by our manufacturers, and that so much more could be usec out interfering with the domestic product, and the further fac rates of freight are almost, if not quite, as cheap to Boston as t don, the wonder is that all of the Australian wool used in Ame not shipped direct, instead of paying the London brokers' comm and the extra freight from London across the Atlantic.

Until late years the local food requirements created a sufficie mand for all disposable surplus stock, including aged ewes, bu numbers available are now much in excess of this demand and, an export trade in frozen meat can be successfully developed, lo ues must compel many owners to abandon breeding and so bring t to their proper level.

To meet the exigencies of the case sheep owners are asking tha be taxed 1 farthing per head on sheep, the proceeds to be used in ing and carrying on freezing works for export purposes, such ta not to apply to flocks of 2,000 or less. Parliament, however, do seem inclined to grant their request. There are at present fr works in Sydney, and also in Aberdeen, the latter place being 125 miles to the north of Newcastle. The works at Aberdeen hav been started, the first trial shipment having been made to Londo a few weeks ago.

As the wholesale price of prime New South Wales frozen mut regularly quoted in the London market at 1½*d.* per pound less tha best New Zealand, it is evident that much has yet to be learned preparation, and that more attention will have to be given to bre for slaughtering purposes.

Slaughtering for food is permitted only in places licensed for th pose. The quantity of meat consumed in the metropolitan d during the year is about 310 pounds per head, 121 pounds of m and 189 pounds of beef. In the rest of the colony the quantity is 236 pounds per head, 67 pounds being mutton and 169 pound This would make the average annual consumption of mutton f whole colony 85 pounds. In 1890 there were slaughtered 2,0 sheep, 1,242,362 for the country districts and 771,693 for the met itan.

Merino wethers are sold for butchering purposes at 3 or 4 yea when their average weight dressed is about 46½ pounds. The a weight of the Lincoln and Leicester is from 57 to 60 pounds. M wethers are worth at the present time in Sydney, with half-grown about 8*s.* each. Very few aged ewes reach the principal markets of them being consumed on the stations or realized at the b establishments.

The only establishment of importance where meats are canned is the Sydney Meat-Preserving Company, at Rockwood, a suburb of Sydney. Between June, 1889, and June, 1891, the company dealt with 806,297 sheep and 4,200 cattle at an expenditure of £476,431. At present they have over 300 hands employed at a weekly wage of £700. The company has never paid any dividend, and what it has done in maintaining the price of fat stock has only been accomplished by sinking the whole of its subscribed capital, amounting to £22,000, assisted by the subsidy of one-half of 1 per cent collected by the stock and station agents, to the extent of some £5,000 a year, from those owners who voluntarily subscribed that percentage on the sales of their fat stock to make up the subsidy.

Railway communication is now so generally available throughout the colony that most of the live-stock traffic is done by that means. Still, railway charges are in excess of the cost of droving, and where the roads are in good condition that mode of transport is largely adhered to.

The cost of management varies so greatly in different districts and under different managers that it would be misleading to say much about it; but probably there are a few stations so favorably situated or so economically worked that the expense, including all charges until the wool is delivered on board ship in Sydney or Newcastle, is less than £60 per 1,000 sheep per annum.

Undoubtedly the best results are obtained where the owner can give his close attention to the pursuit. I find that a great many stations are in the hands of banking or financial institutions; and, however able the managers may be, they can scarcely, under the circumstances, be in the best position to manage for the best interests of the property they have in charge.

I visited one station containing 312,000 acres of freehold land, on which there were pastured 170,000 sheep, 8,500 cattle, and 350 horses. There were about 250 miles of seven-wire fencing, including boundary and paddock. The only buildings were the homestead, the shearing sheds (including sheds for the sheep during shearing in stormy weather), the shearers' huts, the store, and the usual outbuildings. But a very few acres were under cvltivation.

The laborers were all white men, of whom there were 40 employed all the year round. During shearing 70 extra hands are employed. The regular employés are laboring hands for general work and boundary riders to look after the fences and the sheep. They are paid by the year and are settled with half yearly. The boundary riders are paid £40 per annum.

In this report I have drawn largely on the statistical report of T. A. Coghlan, government statistican, for the year 1890–'91, and have verified most all of the statistics by that work. Statistics, except in a few instances for 1891–'92, were unattainable; so that, unless expressly stated otherwise, the year referred to is 1890–'91.

A conference *was held in Sydney* on the 7th and 8th of August, 1891,

between representatives of the Pastoralists' Federal Council of A tralia and representatives of the Amalgamated Shearers' Union of A tralasia, at which the following was agreed to:

Employers shall be free to employ, and shearers shall be free to accept empl ment, whether belonging to shearers' or other unions or not, without favor, molo tion, or intimidation on either side.*

SHEARING AGREEMENT FOR NEW SOUTH WALES.

Agreement made this ——— day of ———, 189—, between ———, hereinafter cal the employer, of the one part, and the undersigned, shearer, of the other part. T terms of this agreement are that the undersigned shearer here agrees to shear w all reasonable dispatch all the sheep required of him by the employer or his ag during the present season in a good and workmanlike manner and to the satisfacti of his employer or his agent, the total number of sheep required to be shorn by t whole of the shearers employed during the shearing to be not less than ——— th sand nor more than ——— thousand.

(1) The price of shearing wethers, ewes, and lambs (including ram lambs under months old) to be at the rate of 20s. per 100 for all such sheep shorn; rams at rate of 40s. per 100 for all rams shorn, money to be paid by a check on a local ba or exchange to be added.

(2) The shearer shall be at the ——— station or run ready to commence shear on the ——— day of ———, 189—; and the employer agrees to be ready to comme shearing on that date, and to keep the shearer fully supplied with sheep, unless p vented by weather or by some unforeseen cause.

(3) The employer shall, during the whole of the time the shearer is engaged she ing, provide him with hut accommodation, cooking and table utensils, wood, s water free of charge.

(4) The shearer shall not absent himself from work, but in case he leave before completion of shearing, owing to sickness, accident, or other such unavoidable ca or by the permission of the employer or his agent, he shall be paid in full for sheep shorn by him, but shall be charged 15s. per week, or such rate as the shear agree upon, for his board and lodging (cook's remuneration included), such sum be deducted from the amount due to him and placed to the credit of the shear mess account.

(5) If the shearer be discharged, as he may be, for breach of this agreement or the rules indorsed hereon, he shall be paid for the number of sheep shorn by him to the time of such discharge; but he shall be charged 18s. per week for his bo and lodging (cook's remuneration included), which amount shall be placed to credit of the shearers' mess account.

(6) Once a week, on a day to be named at commencement of shearing, on dema the employer shall pay to the shearer any sum not exceeding 50 per cent of amount due over and above one week's earnings at the time of such demand, exc in case of the shearer breaking this agreement.

(7) The employer and the shearer shall conform to the rules indorsed here which rules, it is hereby agreed, shall be taken and deemed to be and form part this agreement.

As witness the hands of the parties the day and year first before written.

——— ———

Signed by the employer, in the presence of—

——— ———,

——— ———

Signed by the shearer, in the presence of—

——— ———.

* *This is the definition of* "freedom of contract" by the Pastoralists' Federal Council of Austra

RULES EMBODIED AS PART OF AGREEMENT.

(1) The shearing shall be carried on under the direction and supervision of the employer or the person placed by him in charge of the shed.

(2) Before commencing work the shearer shall draw lots for his pen, and shall abide by the result of such drawing, the person in charge of the shed having the right to make any alteration deemed advisable.

(3) All sheep must be taken carefully from the pen to the shearing board and be shorn closely and in a fair and workmanlike manner and to the satisfaction of the person in charge of the shed, the belly wool to be taken off first, where practicable, and laid aside.

(4) In opening the fleece at the neck and belly, both blades of the shears of the machine to be kept under the wool and close to the skin, so as to avoid twice cutting, and the shearer shall not be allowed to run the shears or the machine through the fleece so as to break it down the center or the back, and shall not stand on the fleece.

(5) In case the shearer turns out a sheep badly cut or insufficiently tarred, he shall at once sew and tar such cuts or wounds in his pen, or otherwise dress or treat such sheep as directed by the person in charge of the shed; but no shearer shall be required to tar his sheep in other cases.

(6) The shearer shall not be allowed to kick or otherwise injure or ill use any sheep, and, in case he seriously injure or ill use any sheep or cut the teat of any ewe or pizzle of any wether or ram, he shall immediately report same to person in charge of shed; and he shall pay to the employer the mess rate for the sheep so injured, and, if the sheep be fit for food, it shall go to the shearers' mess, the employer to have the right to refuse such payment and keep the sheep.

(7) The shearer shall not be allowed to catch any sheep from his pen while it is being filled, but shall during such filling shear from any pen or pens that may be allotted to him by the person in charge of the shed. No sheep to be caught after the signal has been given to cease work by the person in charge of the shed.

(8) The prices to be charged by the employer for rations and shearers' requisites shall not exceed cost prices, with 10 per cent and cost of carriage added.

(9) Each shearer may have free run for two horses where 5,000 sheep or more are to be shorn; but in case less than 5,000 sheep are to be shorn, only one horse. But the employer accepts no responsibility for shearers' horses.

(10) No shearer shall bring, or cause to be brought, any intoxicating liquor onto the station; no profane or obscene language or singing shall be allowed in the shed.

(11) The employer shall provide at least one grindstone for every ten shearers employed.

(12) Shearers shall provide their own cook, except where cooks work conjointly for shearers and the employer, in which case the cook shall be engaged mutually by the employer and the shearers, and the proportion of mess account and of cook's remuneration shall be matter of mutual agreement.

(13) In all sheds where shearing machines are used the shearer shall be provided with one comb and four cutters, free of cost, to every 1,500 sheep shorn by him, all combs and cutters used by the shearer above that number to be paid for by him at cost price. In case of stoppages through breakage or otherwise, shearers shall go on shearing with the hand shears.

(14) No shearer shall be compelled to shear wet or cancered sheep.

(15) No shearer shall be compelled to work more than forty-eight hours in one week.

WOOL-SORTING, WOOL-CLASSING, AND WOOL-PACKING.*

[Inclosure in Commercial Agent Boggs's report.]

WOOL-SORTING.

Wool-sorting differs from wool-classing in important particulars, which will be brought out presently. To many, sorting and classing are synonymous, and even amongst wool-classers themselves the difference is not fully understood. Wool-sorting is the art of dividing a fleece into different qualities or counts, as required by the manufacturer, in order that he may make or spin an even thread. Without evenness of quality, regularity of length in the raw material in the first place, it is not possible, even with the greatest assistance from the most improved machinery, to make or spin an even thread with which to weave an even piece of cloth.

The sorting of wool for manufacturing purposes is the initial operation and differs from many other trades, inasmuch as there is no standard or measure by which to test the accuracy of the sorts made until the wool has undergone many stages of preparation into a thread; in this stage only can the test be made. It is thus seen how important is careful, skilled wool-sorting. This proficiency can only be gained by thorough training, under practical tuition, long practice, and, lastly, though not least, having the work constantly corrected or looked over and the faults explained.

The looking over is a most particular branch of the trade and is carried out with much exactness, and it is surprising to see the great quantities of wool in different sorts examined by the looker-over containing little or no unevenness, or, as they are called in the trade, "sweats" in them. It is surprising to see with what dexterity and precision well-trained sorters tear off or divide the many different sorts from the fleece and throw them into as many different baskets. A good wool-sorter must have prompt decision, confidence, good eyesight, sensitive touch, in addition to his practical training, and he must have a good natural light to work with. So desirable is a good light that the wool merchants and manufacturers of Bradford, who have thousands of tons sorted weekly, in no case allow a pound of wool to be sorted by artificial light, however pressing their orders may be, their motto being "bad sorting bad pieces," which the merchants reject freely. Artificial light is very deceptive giving wrong impressions in regard to the wool.

The following description will enable the reader to imagine himself in a larg wool warehouse in Bradford, the great center of the worsted trade, and give him slight idea of how this work is carried out. The warehouses are mostly four or fiv stories high, the rooms being well lighted by many windows, a top or roof ligh rarely being used, as this is too glaring. The top room is mostly used for classin the fleeces and generally contains large bings (provincial for "heaps"), in whic to put the different classes or grades of fleeces. If there are no bings, the fleeces ar buit up into piles, sometimes of great size; each fleece in front and sides is distinctl to be seen, and the neat, even, and massive structure is an imposing sight. Whe the sorter requires any wool it is packed in large sheets, representing Australia wool packs. The sheet is over 6 feet long, about 3 feet broad, and opens only lengtl wise. This is slung up by two cords, one man handing in the fleeces, whilst tw tramp them with their feet; when full the sheet is skewered up and weighed, read to be sent down to the sorter, who in turn receives it in the room below, takes th number, and weighs it. The sorter is paid at so much per pack, or every 240 pounds

The sorting room is very different from the classing room, having long windows which are boarded up about 6 inches from the bottom to receive the clippings and ta brands. There is one continuous table the whole length of the room, on which ar placed wire-screen tables, which assist to clean the wool. At equal distances, wi

* Technical education series, by Alfred Hawksworth; published at Sydney, N. W., by the department of public instruction.

a window in the center, each man's stand is divided by boards about a foot high, so that every sorter has an alloted space and no one to interfere with him. Underneath the table there are three or four divisions in each stand in which to put the different sorts or shorts made from skirtings; also, there are a number of skeps, or large baskets, to receive the fleece sorts or matchings. On receiving the sheet of wool the sorter takes the number and weight and sets to work at dusk, if in winter, and opens as many fleeces as will keep him going until dusk next day, and so on every day. The fleeces are open separately, split or divided down the back, gathering first one side, then the other, with the flesh side to him, throwing a little of the end back over the whole, thus keeping each side separate and convenient to handle. Each half fleece is laid side by side in tiers on the left-hand side of the sorter. After the pile is built up with sufficient for a day's work, the sorter picks up the locks made in the opening, which is done by shaking the big pieces out first, and so on until there is nothing left but the dirt, which is swept into the right-hand corner of the stand. It must be mentioned here that on no consideration is the brush allowed to be used until all the bits of wool have been picked up off the floor by hand. The sorter commences by sorting the locks picked off the floor, making three or four sorts, as required, which are thrown into their respective bings under the table. Having all perfectly clear, he takes half a fleece from the pile and places it on the table, unrolls it like a blanket, always having the skirts toward him, which are taken off first and sorted; afterwards all tar brands, dags, or clippings are clipped off with shears (each man being provided with a pair) and thrown into the window bottom. Moiting consists of picking out all sticks, leaves, etc., and these are thrown on to the floor with the sweepings and called "pickings." The half fleece is now ready for sorting or dividing into the different qualities, first by taking out the finest part (shoulder), which is given a shake to free it from any fribs, etc., and then thrown into a basket. This operation is carried out until there is nothing but the breech left. If the visitor notices the numerous baskets after a few hours' work, he will find the quantity in each basket different. Some are almost full, others contain little, thus demonstrating the many different sorts contained in fleeces. As the baskets become full they are taken away by the dayman or looker over, who, in turn, examines every piece over a table, and any pieces that are too good or too low are taken out and called "returns," "contraries," or, to use a common phrase among sorters, "sweats;" these are sent back, and the operator knows exactly how his work is, whether too good or too low. The term "sweating" is disagreeably known amongst the workmen, and if there is much coming back it signifies, "Do your work better or look out for another place." However disagreeable looking over is, it is the only way in which correct work can be insured, as the best of work is liable to require regulating at times.

Many will probably be interested to know how this trade is learned; for those the following paragraph will be useful:

The apprentice is sent either to a wool-stapler, or merchant, or manufacturer; but as the former offers better facilities for thorough tuition for the general trade it will be more suitable first to follow the learner into the warehouse. The youth is bound for a term of five or six years; often for the first year receives no wages, but if smart and civil he often receives presents from different sources. Many begin with from 2s. 6d. to 5s. per week and a rise of a few shillings yearly until the last twelve months, when the apprentice earns 10s. per week for his master; all over that amount is for himself. The duties of the apprentice begin with sweeping, dusting, lighting office fires, and he is the general sweeper for the whole warehouse, also message boy. The sooner the sweeping is done the sooner he goes into the sorting room, where he is put under the care of an old and experienced wool-sorter, who teaches the boy his trade. Beginning first by learning how to open fleeces, the tutor is very careful in showing the proper mode, and the boy consequently soon becomes an adept and opens much faster than his tutor can sort. When there is a good pile of opened

fleeces the boy picks up locks, and, having swept clean, is set to try his hand at sorting the locks, the instructor watching and teaching, as he is responsible for the work, which has to be put with his. Usually all the time and trouble expended are repaid to the instructor, as the pupil in time becomes of great assistance. The opening and sorting locks occupy little time. He is then allowed to skirt and sort them, and eventually tries his hand at the fleece, which costs the tutor much more time and trouble than teaching any other part of the trade. The learner in course of time throws his own sorts to himself, which are carefully passed over the table by the instructor, who thoroughly explains and compares. These lessons, more than anything else, tend to make a practical tradesman.

Another branch of the trade more thoroughly taught in a warehouse than in a factory is wool-classing, and after the sorting is mastered very little is required than this to make a perfect wool-classer. In a warehouse the great advantage is the necessity of preparing the wool for sale to suit many customers, whilst the factory owner has no wool customers, it being sold in the shape of yarns or pieces. The wool merchant is the intermediate between the grower and the user, and to him the manufacturer goes to buy any particular kind of wool suited to his requirements.

The wool-growers in Great Britain have generally few sheep—a few hundreds or a very few thousand. To meet their requirements the wool-staplers send buyers, who take their rounds yearly and purchase the entire clip, all sorts packed up together, which are sent on to the warehouses, where they are classed ready for sale. The classing is done by the foreman or underforeman, who, with the apprentices, commences operations by cutting open a sheet at a time, being most particular in picking out every little bit of twine as the work proceeds and placing them in a bag provided purposely. The classer is provided with a small table, onto which the apprentice hands fleece by fleece, when it is examined, tested as to strength, length, etc.; it is then either thrown into the bing or onto a pile. After the fleeces are classed into their different grades—hoggets, wethers, crossbreds, lusters, demilusters, casts, etc.—the buyers eventually turn up, or, if any class is made for a special firm, their buyer is sent for. The wool is purchased with certain conditions, such as the option of throwing out any objectionable fleece. The purchaser sends his foreman to "take up," as it is called, that meaning every fleece is to be passed to him on the classing table. The apprentice who handles the fleece again at this juncture has a double advantage; this is one of the most valuable to be obtained in the whole wool-classing training. In the first instance he has the opinion of his own firm's classer, who gets up for sale; secondly, the opinion of the buyer's representative; and if the learner be intelligent and attentive he is thus in a position to obtain a thorough practical education.

The experience of the apprentice in the factory is a little different, but he has not the same wide range as in a warehouse. The learner goes straight to the wool table, is placed under a competent man, and is turned out a thorough tradesman, as far as regards the kind of wool used by the firm. He, however, misses any chance of classing experience, very little, if any, being done in the factories; so that, taking the advantages offered by the warehouse against those of the factory, the former is decidedly to be preferred. Again, when a sorter is once made, it takes little to make a classer of him, as he readily takes up the ideas required for classing any breed of wool he may not have previously handled.

TECHNICAL TERMS USED IN WOOL-SORTING.

Merino combing wools.

Combing—long wool used in the combing or worsted trade. Matchings—name given to the many different sorts into which the fleece is divided, not including the skirtings. Supercombing—wool taken from finest part of fleece or shoulders. First combing—wool taken from sides of fleece. Second combing—wool taken from back

across the loins, to neck. Third combing—wool taken from lower part of back. Fourth combing—wool taken from rump. Fifth combing—wool taken from thigh. Sixth combing—wool taken from lower part of the thigh and called breech.

The numbering of sorts is not always done, firms having names of their own, and in many cases use letters instead; some using the names of qualities to which the wool can be spun to, as 36's, 40's, 60's, etc., and in all cases the meaning is the same.

Clothing or short wool—technical terms used in sorting merino short wool.

Picklock—the choicest part of a very fine fleece. Prime—taken from sides of a very fine fleece or shoulder of a good fleece. Choice—best part of the neck of a fine fleece. Super—taken from the back, across the loins, to neck. Head—taken from head. Downrights—taken from lower part of sides or skirtings. This sort is mostly composed of the best wool from a good short fleece. Seconds—best wool from throat and breast. Abb—skirtings from breech. Shankings—from legs. Toppings—dags and tar brands cut off with shears by the sorter. Pickings—straw, thorns, twigs, seed, or any dry vegetable matter. Fribs—Second cuts.

The above names are not always used; sometimes numbers or letters indicate the sorts. The above-named sorts constitute all the woolen manufacturers require, from the finest broadcloth to the very lowest rugs and carpets.

English and crossbred wool—luster and demiluster, etc.

Combing matchings.—Fine—taken from best part of an extra fine luster fleece. Blue—taken from the best part of average luster fleece. Neat—sides of fleece and sort lower than blue. Brown—sort between neat and breech; sort lower than neat. Breech—lower part of fleece grown on leg. Cowtail—when the breech is low and rough; cowtail is the lowest part.

Shorts or brokes made only from skirts of British and coarse foreign wools.

Fine—finest shorts. Downrights—Fine shorts; sort lower than fine. Seconds—shorts; sort lower than downrights. Abb—shorts from breech and cowtail. Lofty is a general term used in all short wools, signifying bulkiness, bigness.

WOOL-CLASSING.

Wool-classing concerns the colonies more than sorting does, and a few notes on this subject may be useful, as the difference between the two branches is very great.

Wool-classing may be performed by a less-experienced man, as it is confined to dealing with the fleece as a whole, but nevertheless it should be carried out in a systematic manner. Each class should be distinct, even in quality, regular in length and color. To class wool to meet the requirements of the trade the following particulars are given, in the hope that they will be found useful both to grower and classer. Many growers think that classing is unnecessary, but frequently an opportunity is thus given to the middleman or merchant, who is constantly on the lookout for unclassed lots, which he turns over for a profit, to the detriment of the grower. It is not desirable to make a number of sorts, as small lots are objectionable and rarely fetch their full value as well as large lots, which are altogether more suitable to the trade.

The classer should not finally fix his sorts from the start, as he might form a wrong standard for each sort, but by placing the fleeces before the bings into which, in his opinion, they ought to go, and at a convenient time carefully going through each lot fleece by fleece, he can throw out any misplaced fleeces, and thus form a distinct standard for each sort. By occasionally looking through the bings for the first few days he naturally becomes conversant with the style of wool, and thus his work becomes simplified.

In classing there should be three sorts of sound combing made, also a cast, and three sorts of clothing. In the combings the great bulk will constitute the first combing, being an average quality and length of the whole clip, and it must be sound and even. A supercombing consists of fleeces little shorter than the first, but much finer. The second combing should contain much longer, stronger, and deeper-grown wool than the first combing and consist of nothing but sound wool. The cast takes all cross and very low fleeces; this is generally sent to scour.

In clothings the classes should be made according to quality, independent of length. A superclothing consists of highest quality, the staple being short, with good color, density, fine serrations for felting purposes, and soft and kind to the touch.

First clothing contains the bulk of the short wool, will be a little longer than the super, and not so fine; due attention should be paid to brightness, softness, and pliability.

Second clothing is a very wide grade, containing much tender from the low combings and the rough, low, harsh wool. Generally this sort is of much bolder growth than the other two sorts, but will occasionally contain a few very short, low, rough fleeces.

Skirtings.—A most difficult part in connection with shearing is to get these nicely picked, and it is surprising to see the slipshod manner with which they are allowed to be handled, to the loss of the grower. If more attention were given to this department, there is no doubt that a fair proportion of the amount of the expenses during shearing would be met by the extra prices realized when the pieces are nicely picked. One great difficulty consists in the scarcity of reliable bush hands for this work, but to a great extent this might be overcome by a slightly increased wage and extra hands. This extra expense, which only amounts to a few pounds at the finishing of shearing, will certainly be returned many times. The demand for well-got-up pieces is great, and in many instances the best realize as much, and sometimes more, than the fleece. Three sorts and a "stained" are sufficient for the skirtings when the wool contains seed. "Broken" contains all the big, free, and clean; next, first pieces comprise the bulk, generally not so lofty as the broken; second pieces are bitty, not so good a color, generally dirty, seedy, and much discolored, but should be free from "stained." (See technical terms.) To further advance the value of the wethers' belly wool the picking out of the stained would be beneficial.

Wool-classing is an important branch of the great staple trade and (like others) abused by the presence of impostors. In the interests of the trade, it is to be regretted that this subject is so lightly thought of by both growers and brokers. This neglect, in a great number of cases, has placed many a man claiming to be a wool-classer in a false position. Many men are classers in name only, who commit to memory wool phrases, and, assisted by a glib tongue, create a favorable impression on the employer, succeed in getting his shed, and can not do justice to his wool.

TECHNICAL TERMS USED IN WOOL-CLASSING.

Combing—long wool; a term used to distinguish from short wool; a wool specially adapted for the worsted trade. Clothing—a short wool; a term used to distinguish from combing or long wool; a wool used in the cloth or woolen trade. Teg, hog, or hogget—the first fleece from a sheep that has not been shorn as lamb. Shurled hogget—first fleece from a sheep after it has been shorn as lamb. Wether wool (English)—all fleeces cut from sheep after the first or hogget fleece has been removed. Wether wool (colonial)—all fleeces shorn from unsexed sheep after the hogget fleece has been removed. Ewes' wool—all wools shorn from female sheep. Rams' wool—wool grown on male sheep. Lambs' wool—wool grown on lambs. Luster—glossy, metallic brightness. Brightness—refers to demiluster; a softer shade of luster. Fineness—smallness of fiber. Quality—fineness, with high character and breeding. Counts or quality to which wool can be spun—as many hanks

r 560 yards, as 1 pound of scoured wool will produce when spun. Serration—pointed, caly covering of fiber, as distinguished from hair. Silkiness—a combination of softness, fineness, and brightness. Elasticity—the capability of stretching and returning o its original form. Tenderness—weakness, unsoundness. Broad or thick haired—lenoting loss of character; straight fibered, devoid of elasticity. Hardness—dry, unkind feel. Earthy—dirty from the presence of soil. Gritty—hard, unkind handling, caused by the presence of sand. Stringy—thin, delicate stapled wool. Mushy—open, fuzzy. Noily—wasty, mushy, perished. Dingy—lacking brightness; a deficiency of color. Discolored—stained by dead yolk. Stained—brown or burnt colored, caused by urine, etc. Cast—a rough, coarse, bad-bred fleece. Cot—a matted or felted wool. Kemps—white and dark brittle hairs; a fiber grown on sheep which resists dyeing; is an indication of want of purity of breed. Dags—matted fibers and dirt.

HOSIERY OR CARDING WOOLS.

This class comprises mostly the medium-grown wools, and, as this branch of manufacturing is a distinct trade to itself, a little information is desirable. Carding is a process of preparing, straightening, or laying parallel; and all wools, whether for worsted, woolens, or hosiery goods, undergo this process prior to the more advanced stages of spinning, weaving, etc. The word carding is mostly used in the trade, meaning a wool required for hosiery goods. The wool best suited for this purpose is of medium length, coming between a combing and a clothing, which again makes these two classes more distinct.

Hosiery yarns require to be soft, open, or fluffy, and any wools of medium length with mushy, noily, or wasty tips are best adapted for the purpose.

The yarn is not twisted to that extent as in worsteds; and the wool which has not passed through the combs contains the fuzzy, noily fibers, assist to make the spun thread woolly or fluffy.

One of the main qualifications for these goods is to have a very bright, light wool, which can be dyed into the most delicate shades. Much of this description of wool is grown on the back blocks of New South Wales and Queensland.

PACKING WOOL.

This work is generally carried out fairly well, but nevertheless there is room for improvement, both in large sheds and especially amongst the selectors' and farmers' clips.

Refuse.—One great eyesore to buyers is the neglect of not giving proper attention to bits of twine which lie about the floor and eventually find their way into the pack with the wool. Another very objectionable practice is the cutting off the part of sides of the pack to facilitate the sewing; these bits of rag also find their way into the pack. This latter is done with the idea of not losing a half pound in weight. To prevent trouble to the pressers a bag should be fixed convenient to the press and the pressers instructed to put all bits of twine and bits of packs into the bag, and not on the floor. This precaution would tend to have the desired effect. Neglect of these precautions becomes expensive to the growers; a buyer is very chary when he comes across twine amongst the wool, and will often move on without making a valuation. The hemp, etc., is very destructive to the delicate woolen and worsted machinery, often causing a smash, and even if it happens to pass through and find its way into the piece, the sharp eye of the merchant's piece-overlooker readily detects the fault and the piece is rejected and sent back to the manufacturer as damaged.

The cutting up of small clips into little lots and mixing different sorts in bales should be avoided as much as possible. These lots have to be sold separately, and mostly at a price considerably under the real value. Selectors and farmers would do justice to themselves in *studying the matter.*

Branding is another important matter deserving consideration, and sho with good, bold letters on one or two sides, as well as on the top of th giving descriptions of the sorts always use figures, as "1st" or "2d," ins ters, as "A," "AA," "B," "BB," etc. Letters give no information to t or as to the style of wool contained under "A" or "AA," etc., and, if push he might pass on to other lots marked "1st" or "2d," as the numbers lea what to expect. Always brand every bale in rotation as it comes out o whatever the sort may be, as by so doing much labor and many mista avoided. Never brand a sort of wool better than the class for which it is sure to be found out after; then that particular brand will be looked suspicion and probably miss sale for some time, especially if business is s

Selling and reserves.—In disposing of wool a little more discretion allo selling brokers would often be of advantage. The auctioneers are in position than the growers to ascertain the real values, and frequently, w a farthing of the growers' reserves, the lot has to be passed in. Again, it occurs that a grower has too high an opinion of his wool, and therefo mates its market value. Brokers invariably fight hard and get the ve out of the consignments for their patrons, and in general will do better fo they could do for themselves. The great object of these descriptive mu logues is to advance the interests of all concerned in the wool industry, an ing attention to matters in which there appears to be room for improv hoped that all concerned will be benefited.

WOOL STATISTICS, 1889.

Table showing wool sold in the Australian markets for the year ended Febru

Brokers.	Victoria.	New South Wales.	South Austral
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Goldsbrough, Mort & Co. (limited)	67,105	74,943	.....
New Zealand Loan and Mortgage Agency Company (limited)	48,896	21,647	5,3
Australasian Mortgage and Agency Company (limited)	28,103	5,023	.....
Dalgety & Co. (limited)	24,077	10,146	.....
Harrison, Jones & Devlin (limited)	.....	36,777	.....
Dennys, Lascelles, Austin & Co	27,620	.....	.....
Elder, Smith & Co. (limited)	.....	.....	23,7
John Bridge	.....	17,996	.....
J. H. Geddes & Co	.....	16,958	.....
Hill, Clark & Co	.....	10,422	.....
Luxmore & Co. (limited)	.....	.....	13,1
Union Mortgage and Agency Company (limited)	10,014	.....	.....
George Hague & Co	9,061	.....	.....
F. L. Barker	.....	4,545	.....
Other brokers	.....	60	1,3
Total	214,876	189,517	43,5

Table showing distribution of the wool sold in the year ended February 28, . continent of Europe.

Colony.	Antwerp.		Bremen.		H
	Direct.	Via London.	Direct.	Via London.	Direc
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bale*
Victoria	26,351	18,181	1,635	1,000	3,2
New South Wales	33,636	13,766	4,658	1,904	2,9
South Australia	5,696	4,287	.....	.....	9
Total	65,683	36,234	6,293	2,904	7,2

Table showing the distribution of the wool sold, etc.—Continued.

Colony.	Marseilles, direct.	Dunkirk, via London.	Other ports, direct.	Total.	
				Direct.	Via London.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Victoria	2,835	321	.....	65,683	36,234
New South Wales	1,965	.....	3,193	6,293	
				7,203	2,904
				3,193	2,625
South Australia	.....	.....	.....	4,800	321
Total	4,800	321	3,193	87,172	42,084

Table showing the wool sold to America in year ended February 28, 1889.

Colony.	Direct.	By steamer via London.	Total.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Victoria	27,591	7,048	34,639
New South Wales	3,176	393	3,569
South Australia	.....	33	33
Total	30,767	7,474	38,241

The total purchases for the United States and Canada in 1888 amounted to 22,825 bales, 446 of which were bought in Sydney.

The total shipments of wool from Australasia from July 1, 1888, to latest dates, March 4, 1889, were as follows:

Colony.	1887–'88.	1888–'89.	Increase.	Decrease.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Victoria	325,170	310,941	.....	14,229
New South Wales	335,729	412,234	76,505	.....
South Australia	144,255	118,983	.....	25,272
Queensland	73,488	79,189	5,701	.....
West Australia	16,438	20,746	4,308	.....
Tasmania	16,657	13,565	.....	3,092
Total Australian	911,737	955,658	86,514	42,593
New Zealand, later	195,511	184,294	.....	11,217
Total Australasia	1,107,248	1,139,952	86,514	53,810

Table showing importations of colonial and foreign wool into the United Kingdom from 1875 to 1888.

From—	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Victoria	279,751	305,542	334,397	302,508	309,614	306,817	355,524
New South Wales	114,731	135,834	148,322	137,540	154,409	193,363	206,226
Queensland	28,251	34,587	35,289	38,181	34,502	31,414	39,362
South Australia	100,852	102,390	107,470	104,808	111,190	109,917	112,827
West Australia	6,745	7,554	8,186	8,132	8,369	9,211	11,217
Tasmania	19,076	20,596	21,550	21,287	24,263	23,653	23,826
New Zealand	149,896	162,289	169,795	187,546	184,877	189,441	182,907
Total Australasian	699,302	768,792	825,009	790,922	827,220	863,816	931,889
Cape and Natal	174,081	169,504	169,291	160,263	176,145	193,528	194,133
Total colonial	873,383	938,296	994,300	951,185	1,003,365	1,057,344	1,126,002
Foreign	309,914	306,807	314,684	309,271	320,764	430,151	270,370
Total imports	1,183,297	1,245,103	1,308,984	1,260,456	1,324,129	1,487,495	1,396,372

Table showing importations of colonial and foreign wool, etc.—Continued.

From—	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*B*
Victoria	364, 041	336, 518	358, 228	317, 152	360, 731	345, 396	3
New South Wales	230, 284	234, 659	241, 271	217, 119	265, 181	245, 290	3
Queensland	54, 093	60, 858	99, 974	104, 361	84, 065	106, 614	1
South Australia	122, 167	108, 487	118, 357	115, 108	130, 628	106, 403	1
West Australia	11, 615	11, 208	13, 204	14, 427	16, 862	17, 656	
Tasmania	23, 429	24, 038	24, 415	21, 681	21, 463	22, 261	
New Zealand	194, 102	215, 024	228, 900	237, 875	269, 912	272, 918	2
Total Australasian	999, 731	990, 792	1, 084, 355	1, 027, 723	1, 139, 842	1, 116, 538	1, 2
Cape and Natal	191, 113	187, 368	189, 377	182, 168	227, 289	234, 727	2
Total colonial	1, 190, 844	1, 178, 160	1, 273, 732	1, 209, 891	1, 367, 131	1, 351, 266	1, 5
Foreign	362, 527	310, 300	385, 871	359, 826	452, 051	462, 044	4
Total imports	1, 553, 371	1, 488, 460	1, 659, 603	1, 569, 717	1, 819, 182	1, 813, 310	2, 0

Table showing export of wool from Australia for four years, from July 1, 1884, to 30, 1888.

Colony.	1884–'85.	1885–'86.	1886–'87.	1887
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Ba*
Victoria	329, 911	315, 650	331, 998	3
New South Wales	292, 993	346, 145	332, 961	3
South Australia	152, 350	130, 934	148, 120	1
Queensland	74, 002	72, 710	65, 305	
Tasmania	17, 268	16, 435	18, 621	
West Australia	13, 222	14, 343	16, 373	
Total Australian	879, 746	896, 217	913, 378	1, 0
New Zealand	232, 100	244, 617	271, 904	2
Total Australasian	1, 111, 846	1, 140, 834	1, 185, 282	1, 2

A reference to the composition of this immense clip will be of interest to gro as exhibiting the great change which has taken place during the last twenty in the proportion greasy bears to washed and scoured.

Description.	1869.	1876.	1887.	18
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Ba*
Greasy	158, 000	387, 000	704, 000	8
Fleece (washed)	266, 000	238, 000	45, 000	
Scoured	114, 000	157, 000	354, 000	3
Total catalogued	538, 000	782, 000	1, 103, 000	1, 1
Australian crossbred	7, 500	49, 000	62, 000	
New Zealand crossbred	7, 500	53, 000	168, 000	1
Total crossbred, excluding Swan River wool	15, 000	102, 000	230, 000	2

Table showing number of bales of wool shipped from Victoria to England, the continent, and America from June 30, 1889, to February 28, 1890.

To—	Destination.	Bales.
England	London	217,413
	Grimsby	41,817
	Hull	7,603
	Total	266,833
The Continent	Antwerp	62,073
	Hamburg	14,171
	Bremen	4,687
	Havre	238
	Marseilles	5,723
	Dunkirk	3,715
	Total	90,607
	Optional destination:	
	Antwerp or Hamburg	8,260
	Bremen or Hamburg	5,480
	London or Antwerp	1,764
	Bremen or Antwerp	898
	Other ports	2,274
	Total	18,676
United States	Boston	10,477
	Grand total	386,593

The continental shipments aggregated 109,280 bales this year, as against 54,443 for previous season.

The table below gives shipments to continental ports from 1884 to 1889:

Shipments to—	1884–'85.	1885–'86.	1886–'87.	1887–'88.	1888–'89.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Antwerp	39,526	15,888	36,247	21,384	44,327
Hamburg			2,268	5,299	4,547
Dunkirk		2,539	2,107		321
Marseilles	6,149	3,323	4,731	5,443	2,820
Bremen			2,452	1,051	2,428
Genoa				42	
Total	45,675	21,750	42,805	33,219	54,443

Table showing direct imports of Cape wools into Germany.

Year.	Berlin.	Bremen.	Hamburg.	Total.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
1879	25,000	7,000	9,000	41,000
1880	23,000	11,000	12,000	46,000
1881	26,000	10,000	14,000	50,000
1882	30,000	8,000	10,000	48,000
1883	32,000	12,000	10,000	54,000
1884	33,000	15,000	10,000	58,000
1885	35,000	11,000	4,000	50,000
1886	34,000	19,000	7,000	60,000
1887	46,000	20,000	2,000	68,000
1888	54,000	33,000		87,000

Table showing destination of purchases of Australian wools from commencement of seas to December 31, 1889.

Destination.	Melbourne.	Sydney.	Adelaide.	Total
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bale*
Continent	103,000	90,000	13,500	206,
Yorkshire and Scotland	87,000	15,000	17,500	119,
United States and Canada	12,000	.....	250	12,
Local speculation	5,000	40,000	3,000	48,
Local wool-scourers	5,000	10,000	12,000	27,
Local manufacturing	2,000	.....	.....	2,
Japan	1,000	.....	.....	1,
Total	215,000	155,000	46,250	416,

Table showing supplies of colonial wool in London for 1889, as compared with four p vious years.

Year.	Brought forward.	New arrivals.	Total supplie
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales*
1885	10,000	1,203,000	1,213,
1886	18,000	1,355,000	1,373,
1887	32,000	1,350,000	1,382,
1888	10,000	1,510,000	1,520,
1889	5,000	1,565,000	1,570,

Table showing sales at Melbourne and Gellong for the year ended February 28, 1889

Brokers.	1885–'86.	1886–'87.	1887–'88.	1888–'89.	1889–
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bale*
Goldsbrough, Mort & Co. (limited)	50,095	60,033	62,540	67,105	76,
New Zealand Loan and Mortgage Agency Company (limited)	43,617	44,282	45,647	48,982	71,
Australasian Mortgage and Agency Company (limited)	26,513	28,708	28,589	36,567	36,
Dalgety & Co. (limited)	.....	.....	16,256	25,154	31,
Union Mortgage and Agency Company (limited)	.....	.....	7,961	10,473	12,
Younghusband & Co	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,
Dennys, Lascelles, Austin & Co	18,975	21,491	19,877	27,513	33,
Other brokers	31,706	24,626	8,668	16,763	15,
Total	176,906	179,277	189,666	224,579	282,

Table showing wool sold in Sydney for the year ending February, 1890.

Brokers.	Sold.	Offered.	No. sale
	Bales.	*Bales.*	
Goldsbrough, Mort & Co. (limited)	63,855	73,625	
New Zealand Loan and Mortgage Agency Company (limited)	20,685	24,749	
Australasian Mortgage and Agency Company (limited)	7,718	10,051	
Harrison, Jones & Devlin (limited)	44,079	51,313	
Dalgety & Co. (limited)	11,932	13,434	
John Bridge	28,025	30,475	
J. H. Geddes & Co	20,639	24,178	
Winchcombe, Carson & Co	13,259	14,225	
Hill, Clark & Co	12,418	14,149	
F. L. Barker	10,931	11,199	
Brunker & Wolfe	1,641	1,862	
Other brokers	1,680	1,680	.....
Total	236,862	270,940	
Corresponding 12 months of 1888–'89	209,007	268,600	.....
Increase	27,855	2,340	.....

Table showing wool sold in the Australian markets for the year ended February, 1890.

Brokers.	Victoria.	New South Wales.	South Australia.	Total.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Goldsbrough, Mort & Co. (limited)	76,195	63,855	.....	140,050
New Zealand Loan and Mortgage Agency Company (limited)	72,342	20,685	6,645	99,672
Australasian Mortgage and Agency Company (limited)	36,567	7,718	.....	44,285
Harrison, Jones & Devlin (limited)	.....	44,079	.....	44,079
Dalgety & Co. (limited)	31,739	11,932	.....	43,671
Dennys, Lascelles, Austin & Co	33,082	.....	.....	33,082
John Bridge	.....	28,025	.....	28,025
Elder, Smith & Co. (limited)	.....	.....	24,734	24,734
J. H. Geddes & Co	.....	20,639	.....	20,639
Luxmore & Co. (limited)	.....	.....	14,059	14,059
Winchcombe, Carson & Co	.....	13,259	.....	13,259
Union Mortgage and Agency Company (limited)	12,885	.....	.....	12,885
Hill, Clark & Co	.....	12,418	.....	12,418
George Hague & Co	12,240	.....	.....	12,240
F. L. Barker	.....	10,931	.....	10,931
Younghusband & Co. (limited)	4,724	.....	.....	4,724
R. J. Coombes & Co	.....	.....	2,550	2,550
Brunker & Wolfe	.....	1,641	.....	1,641
Other brokers	3,546	1,680	.....	5,226
Total	283,320	236,862	47,968	568,170

This quantity, it is estimated, has been for consumption as follows:

	Bales.
Home trade	220,000
Continental	290,000
American	13,000
Japan	2,000
Local manufacturers and scourers	43,000
Total	568,000

The number of bales sold in Sydney to America during the season of 1889–'90 was 737 of New South Wales.

COLONIAL WOOL SALE—PRICES, 1889.

At the opening of the season at the colonial warehouses on October 2 prices showed an advance of 15 to 17½ per cent as compared with the opening rates of the previous year. From the outset, buyers, of whom there was a larger attendance than ever before witnessed, showed the utmost disposition to buy. Competition was most keen and the tone of the sales exceedingly animated. The demand appeared equally strong from home and continental sections, but was perhaps greatest from the latter division, strengthened, as they were, by many additional buyers. During the first month prices had a hardening tendency, and at the highest point compared as follows with the previous year:

Kind.	Quality.	Price.
Greasy Merino	Superior	Unchanged.
	Good average	15 per cent higher.
	Inferior to average	15 to 20 per cent. higher.
Scoured Merino	Average to good	15 per cent. higher.
	Inferior to faulty	15 to 20 per cent. higher.
Crossbreds	Superior	5 per cent. higher.
	Average to good	15 to 20 per cent. higher.
	Coarse	20 per cent. higher.

Prices current at this date were:

Kind.	Quality.	Pric
		Pen
Greasy Merino	Superior to extra	13 t
	Average to good	11½ t
	Inferior to medium	8 t
Greasy comeback, and crossbred	Good to superior	12½ t
	Medium	11 t
	Coarse	9½ t
Washed fleece Merino	Good	17 t
	Average	14 t
Scoured Merino	Good to superior	19½ t
	Average to good	17 t
	Inferior and faulty	13½ t

Sydney Sheep Sales and Sheep Statistics.

Table showing Sydney sheep sales in 1888 and 1889.

Brokers.	1888.			1889.		
	Sheep sold.	Amount.	Average.	Sheep sold.	Amount.	Ave
	Number.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	*Number.*	£ s. d.	£
Griffiths & Weaver	156	2,833 19 0	18 3 3	125	2,003 18 6	16
Brunker & Wolfe	759	8,429 18 6	11 2 0	1,218	10,503 0 0	8
Goldsbrough, Mort & Co.	1,397	13,426 2 3	9 12 3	1,673	11,147 0 0	6
Total	2,312	24,689 19 9	10 13 7	2,312	23,653 18 6	7

Table showing how the sales have ranged during the last seven years:

Year.	Sheep sold.	Amount.	Ave
	Number.		£
1883	2,400	£47,578	19
1884	1,871	27,864	14
1885	1,952	26,422	13
1886	1,378	10,768	7
1887	2,287	20,647	9
1888	2,312	24,690	10
1889	3,016	23,653	7

Table showing the number of sheep in the several countries.

Country.	Number.	Country.	Nun
United Kingdom, 1888	29,484,774	Australasia, 1889—continued:	
United States, 1889	42,509,079	Western Australia	3,0
Argentine Republic, 1888	51,238,782	New Zealand—	
		North Island	9,4
Australasia, 1889:		South Island	5,9
New South Wales	50,106,768	Tasmania	1,2
Queensland	15,000,000		
Victoria	11,000,000	Total Australasia	103,7
South Australia	8,000,000		

WOOL PRODUCTION AND ITS PROSPECTS.

If we look outside the colonies, there is decided encouragement for our pa alists. In the first place, the consumption is increasing, whilst the production al is decreasing. We can only attempt to deal with the question of the future pr tion of wool by taking a retrospective glance at the results of the last few y *It has already* been stated that the decrease of sheep in Europe during the las

years has been 50,000,000. This loss, to a great extent, has been caused by disease; also, the enhanced value of land in many European countries has made wool-growing unprofitable. Taking these two primary causes into consideration, we can safely affirm that the decrease is not likely to be recovered in those countries; but, on the contrary, will show a further decrease. In the United States the decrease of sheep has been 6,000,000 during the past three years, with every prospect of further decrease as the population increases.

In South America the number of sheep has decreased during the last two years by 20,000,000, principally through disease. This loss will take a few years to replace under favorable seasons; so that country (our greatest rival) will not be exporting the usual quantity for some years to come.

If we turn to Australia, there are great fluctuations in numbers of sheep, but throughout there is a steady increase. Our great trouble is principally from drought; but to a great extent this will be counteracted by boring for water, more systematic water conservation, and the division of land into smaller holdings. In New South Wales the increase alone in sheep in 1888 was 8,000,000, whilst that of the whole of the Australia at that time may be put down at a little over 12,000,000. The parent colony in 1889 shows a further increase, but not so large as 1888, being 3,603,299, whilst the total number of sheep up to January 1, 1890, was 50,106,768. In Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia also there is to be noticed yearly additions to numbers.

If we now look at the capabilities of the Australian colonies, we shall be able to trace where the increase is likely to arise, and, to a great extent, see the position. Victoria, New Zealand, and Tasmania show little or no increase for many years, so that it may be inferred that they tend to be fully stocked. Seeing, also, that in America and Europe there will be no increase, and that the South American loss will not be made good for some years, any surplus must naturally come from New South Wales, South Australia, Queensland, and Western Australia. If we add to the above the ever-growing demand for woolen goods in Asia and Africa and the great yearly increase of the white population of the world, the fear of any diminution in consumption of wool may be set aside. To say that there is any fear for overproduction is without foundation; the future is altogether encouraging to the wool growers of Australasia, and especially to the four colonies mentioned, but most especially to New South Wales.

The following, from the Bureau of Statistics of the United States on "Wool-production and its prospects," is full of interest:

"Of late years Australians have been in the habit of attributing to their own wool supply a far greater influence upon the world's markets than they deserved. It would be said in a certain year that wool would be dearer because our clip was so many thousand bales short, and this year it was considered that the London market would be weakened because the Australian clip was expected to be from 50,000 to 100,000 bales in excess of last year. But, if it is considered that Australasia supplies yearly about 450,000,000 pounds of wool, as against the world's supply of nearly 2,000,000,000 pounds, or less than one-fourth, it will be understood that other influences may be at work to counteract the increase or decrease of our production. It is known that the number of sheep in Europe has decreased about 50,000,000 during the past ten years, or equal to the production of 200,000,000 pounds of wool. The production of wool from the River Plate increased from 185,000,000 pounds in 1879 to 240,000,000 in 1887, or an increase of about 55,000,000 pounds, although there was a decrease of 24,000,000 pounds from 1885 to 1887. In the United States the increase from 1880 to 1887 was 20,000,000 pounds, and the decrease from 1884 to 1887, 30,000,000 pounds. The above figures clearly show that there are factors outside Australasia which materially affect the world's wool market, and we will now consider how these influences are likely to act in future and the effect they will produce upon the wool supply of Australasia."

One of the most interesting portions of the report already referred to is that showing the effect of population upon the production of wool. It is especially interesting to us, inasmuch as the results obtained in the United States are certain to repeated in our own land, even in a lesser degree. In 1840 the sheep in the United States numbered 19,000,000. In 1880 the number had increased to 35,000,000; but while in 1840 the bulk of the sheep were grazed in the New England and Eastern States, and none in the Southern and Western States, in 1880 the Southern and Western States grazed one-third of the whole number, while the New England and Eastern States only grazed half the number they had in 1840. The highest point was reached in 1884, when the sheep numbered 50,000,000. Of that number more than one-half were grazed in the Southern and Western States and only 8,000,000 in New England and the Eastern States, showing that the increasing population drove the sheep out of the Eastern and New England States towards the more sparsely settled Southern and Western States and Territories, the land being required where population was dense for agriculture and being too dear to profitably graze sheep. Since 1884 even the Southern and Western States seem to have been unable to profitably sustain their former number, the result being that the total number of sheep in the United States has decreased between 1884 and 1887 by about 6,000,000. As the population of the United States is increasing rapidly (the annual increase being estimated at nearly 2,000,000)—the continually pushing out West and South—it is not unreasonable to suppose that the reduction in the number of sheep which has been going on in the New England and Eastern States has now set in South and West. Consider now the increased production of wool from the outside of Europe and Asia.

From 1879 to 1887 colonial and River Plate wool increased from 1,500,000 bales to 2,000,000 bales, or an increase of 500,000 bales; while from 1877 to 1887 the supplies of Australasian, South African, River Plate, and United States wool increased from 2,000,000 bales to 2,700,000 bales, or an increase of 700,000 bales. Yet we find that the consumption has kept pace with the supply.

GEORGE BAGGS,
Commercial Agent.

U. S. COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Newcastle, April 10, 1892.

4. NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL CONNOLLY, OF AUCKLAND.

NEW ZEALAND WOOL.

[ts comparative freedom from milling or felting properties may be ımerated as one of the peculiar characteristics of New Zealand wool. is of good length in due proportion to quality, and is almost entirely e from "burr." In comparison with other wool-producing countries, nearly every instance, a heavier fleece from each particular breed, ept, perhaps, the lowest quality, which is sometimes irregular or ifferent, may be expected. Occasionally small quantities of "dry k" and "tender" is apparent. Generally speaking, the wool is well wn and of good quality, strong, and of uniform growth, with marked edom from those imperfections which are usual in Australian wools. e superiority of New Zealand wool is, I believe, mainly attributable the equable climate of this colony, which is very favorable for wool-wing purposes.

The wool in New Zealand is produced from Spanish Merinos through ssbreeds from Merino ewes and Lincoln or Leicester rams, and on en pastures—the Merinos chiefly on hilly lands, mostly native pas-e.

ongwools and crossbreds are invariably found on the lowlands and tivated flats, generally sown with English grasses. Felting prop-ies are only found to any degree of perfection in the finest wools and ere the fiber is completely covered with minute filaments, which in-lock so much easier and more complete than the serrated breaks in fiber of coarse wool. The reason why New Zealand wool has as a a good length of staple in proportion to its quality is that the sheep e generally a good supply of natural food all the year round. The lness of the climate enables flock-owners to let their sheep remain loors in winter and summer. Thus an exceedingly temperate cli-e and an abundance of good food and pure water at all seasons of year, with a comparative freedom from "tick" and other annoyances, t tend to promote a uniform steady growth of wool. All of these litions must militate largely in favor of a heavy fleece.

ıe irregularity occasionably observable in New Zealand wools is ıly attributed, by those who have given the subject any considera-, to the system of feeding and the kind of land on which the sheep e run. The wool from sheep which have been fed on turnips for e time is always found to be somewhat fatty and earthy, while the l from runs on hilly ground or comparatively level country sown with lish grasses or native "tussock" is usually found clean, bright, and y and in *every way superior*, except, perhaps in weight of fleece

alone. The high winds experienced at times in some parts of New Zealand are also the cause of large quantities of wool being spoiled in condition by sand, more especially when the sheep have been near river beds.

Dry yolk is caused when the sheep have a sudden chill after being overheated. This is admittedly more common in New Zealand wools than Australian.

Tender wool is frequently caused by a change of food, as, for instance, from grass to turnips, etc.

LENGTH OF FIBER.

The length of fiber is as follows:

	Inches.
Merino	2¾ to 4
Quarter-bred, between Merino and half-bred	4
Half-bred, between Merino and Leicester or Lincolns	5
Three-quarter bred, between half-bred and Leicester or Lincolns	7
Leicester (pure)	8½
Longwool	6 to 9

SHRINKAGE.

The shrinkage is as follows:

	Per cent.
Merino	45 to 65
Quarter-breds	47
Half-breds	42
Three-quarter breds	37
Leicesters	30
Crossbreds	35 to 50
Longwools	25 to 35

STRENGTH.

The strength of staple is exceedingly good, except when sheep have been on damp ground and have suffered from foot rot; when there has been an insufficiency of food (which is very rare indeed), owing to an excessively severe winter and overstocking; and also in cases where the dip has not taken proper effect, in consequence of which the sheep may have been worried with tick to so great an extent that they could not thrive. This is especially the case with hoggets.

Then, as regards strength, New Zealand wool is, as a rule, always strong; but as to the strain it would stand, it is impossible to determine at present, as no effort that I am aware of has been attempted as to either the strain or strength of New Zealand wool.

ELASTICITY.

Good wool must be elastic, not only here but in every wool-growing country, and if the staple is given the ordinary test by an expert it will, if of the best quality, stretch and spring and ring like a "fiddle string;" but it is not known here that New Zealand wools have ever been subjected to an intelligent test in this respect.

CRIMP.

All good Merinos and half-bred wools have a crimp, and some well-informed people profess to know how many crimps there are, or there should be, to an inch; but I have not been fortunate enough to meet any of those expert (well informed) woolgrowers. I may add that the word "crimp" is not fully understood here. Crimp wool is taken to be what is known here as "wavy wool;" but I am inclined to believe both words are synonymous terms having the same signification. In any event, it is safe to say that New Zealand wools are beautifully crimp, thus showing good breeding, as it is well understood that bad or indifferently bred wools have little or no crimp.

FINENESS.

New Zealand wools are fine, as Merinos and half-breds are as fine as can be found anywhere. The crossbreds are also of a very superior class; indeed, it may be truthfully remarked that there are no really coarse wools in New Zealand, but Lincoln, or Leicester. These are coarse, but of a very superior quality for their class. Fineness of spinning quality in New Zealand wool ranges from 32 to 36 per cent in the Lincolns and Leicesters up to 64 per cent, and in some isolated instances it goes as high as even 70 per cent.

GLOSS.

All New Zealand wools are more or less glossy when well grown, although gloss or luster is more noticeable in the lower qualities; but the most beautiful luster wools are grown in the Southland and Hawkes Bay woolgrowing districts.

INTRODUCTION OF SHEEP INTO NEW ZEALAND.

It is impossible at present to fix upon the exact date of the introduction of sheep into New Zealand, but it is recorded that in 1814 the Rev. Samuel Marsden imported a few sheep from New South Wales to the Bay of Islands, situate about 100 miles north of Auckland.

The next authentic record available appears to be 1841. On this date, it is said, a few sheep were imported from Sydney to Auckland. Again, in 1845, vessels arrived from Sydney, New South Wales; Port Phillip, Victoria; and Hobartown, Tasmania, with cattle and sheep. Prior to the above date a man named John Deans, of Riccarton, in the Canterbury district of New Zealand, landed some Merino sheep in 1843; but from whence the sheep were imported by Mr. Deans I have not been able to ascertain. Subsequently, about the year 1850, a Mr. Robinson landed some sheep in this colony at a place called Akarao, in the bark *Monarch*, from Newcastle, New South Wales.

The only additional information obtainable on this head is an unrecorded report that a gentleman named Capt. W. B. Rhodes, of Wel-

lington, landed a few sheep in Akarao, Banks Peninsula, ab year 1840.

Satisfactory information as to the breeds and numbers introdu not be obtained at present. Although the most diligent inquir been made, yet no information of a reliable character could be so far as the colony, as a whole, is concerned. Old colonists, whom have been engaged in sheep-raising, say that up to 1850 a there were very few sheep imported, but the few that were were from the Australian colonies, and the breeds were mostly Meri half-breeds. As to the numbers, however, no trustworthy obtainable.

The Canterbury district was originally stocked with Merinos f adjoining province of Nelson about the year 1855, but from wh sheep were brought to the latter province it is at this date im to say. The same may be said with reference to the number an It is most difficult to obtain anything approaching satisfactory ulars in this respect beyond what has been already stated. It ever, safe to say that nearly all the sheep introduced into this came from the colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, and Ta The details as to dates, numbers, and particular breeds can not tained.

About 30,000 Merinos have been imported, principally fro tralia, since 1866, and some 93 of different Down breeds from E together with about 112 Leicester, Lincoln, and Romney ram there were a few Merinos imported from the United States and S but the exact number can not be ascertained. Of the number o imported to this colony over 23,000 were for the Canterbury dis

RATE OF INCREASE.

The rate of increase of Merinos was from 60 to 75 per cent; o breds and Long wools, from 80 to 120 per cent. The net increas whole of New Zealand for the year ended April 30, 1891, this b date of the last return now available, was 637,639 of all classes.

SHEEP CENSUS.

The number of sheep in New Zealand on April 30, 1891, was lows:

Males:	
Merinos	
Other breeds, not distinguished	
Total	
Females:	
Merinos	
Other breeds	
Total	1
Grand total	1

It may not be interesting to give the sexes; but inasmuch as the data was available, I thought perhaps it might not prove altogether uninteresting to report the respective proportions of each.

The crossbred sheep are included in the other breeds already referred to. As no breed is particularly described or enumerated in the government returns, except Merinos, it is therefore impossible to obtain the exact numbers of the other different breeds.

The number of sheep in each district in New Zealand is as follows:

Auckland	602,600
Napier or Hawkes Bay	3,639,540
Wellington	2,917,787
Marlboro	771,631
Canterbury	4,852,353
Otago	3,969,841
Total	16,753,752

Government statistics from the several Australian colonies are not available in New Zealand to a later date than 1890. At the end of that year the number in Australia was:

Victoria	12,736,143
New South Wales	55,986,431
Queensland	18,007,234
South Australia	7,004,642
Western Australia	2,524,913
Tasmania	1,619,256
New Zealand	16,200,358
Total	115,078,977

FLOCK-OWNERS.

The number of flock-owners in this colony is given as follows:

Less than 500	8,272
1,000 and under 2,000	1,691
2,000 and under 5,000	969
5,000 and under 10,000	666
10,000 and under 20,000	287
20,000	239
20,000 and upwards	169
Total owning 16,753,752 sheep	12,293

There are about thirty corporations in New Zealand included in the 12,293 owners mentioned in the above table. These thirty corporations own about 1,400 sheep, while the remaining 15,353,752 sheep are distributed among 12,263 owners as set forth.

PRESENT BREED OF SHEEP.

There are 5,933,538 merinos in all New Zealand and there are 10,820,214 of various other kinds in the colony; but the particular breeds can not be accounted for, as there are no reliable statistics from which such information can be obtained. After much inquiry among wool-growers and *others* likely to give satisfactory replies, it

has been ascertained that, of the 10,820,214 sheep whose breeding is u accounted for, a very large proportion are a cross between merino ew and Lincoln or Leicester rams, while there are a few crosses betwee merinos and different Down breeds.

CLIMATE AND SOIL.

The climate of New Zealand is admirably adapted for sheep an wool-growing purposes, as the figures already supplied will amply dem onstrate. The average annual increase in a breeding flock, supposin it to be in ordinarily fair condition and on good "keep," is about 70 pe cent. Flocks of merinos should and in fact do clip 4 pounds all roun and in some instances as high as 5 pounds.

The natural vegetation of the country consists of three sorts, viz forest, fern, and grass. The former is interspersed all over the face o the country through groves of good timber, and both the latter ar found scattered over the more level portions of the country. The soi of the Middle Island of New Zealand is for the most part of a ric black loam, which produces abundantly whatever may be sown in it The plain or level land of the Middle Island is wonderfully productive capable of producing in many instances 80 to 100 bushels of oats t the acre, and not infrequently even as high as 120 bushels. The cro will not, of course, average this year in and year out; but the genera average for each year is very high, indeed far above that of any othe colony of the Australasian group. The hill land of the Middle Islan is generally sown in grass and used for grazing purposes. The south ern portion of the North Island of New Zealand is, generally speaking nearly of the same character as that of the Middle or South Island except, perhaps, that the conntry is more hilly and broken, while th soil in the valleys and lowlands generally is deep, rich, and mello and very productive. The extreme northern portion of the Nort Island is largely composed of a poor quality of cold, lifeless, yello clay, incapable of producing anything without an abundance of manu or bone dust. Large areas of these lands are covered with scrub a fern, mostly the latter. I do not, however, wish to convey the impre sion that all the land in the northern end of the North Island is ba On the contrary, some of the richest and best lands of the colony m be found here.

Wherever any volcanic soil is found it is exceedingly fertile, capab of producing almost any kind of crop, fruit or vegetable, abundantl The greater portion of the lighter yellow clay land will grow fruit of very superior quality when properly and carefully cultivated. T climate of the north is extremely mild and equable, which in a ve large degree contributes toward the peculiar adaptability of the soil f fruit-growing purposes. This, in time, when access to market a cheaper freights are available, is almost certain to become the princip industry of northern New Zealand, owing to the peculiar character the land.

PASTURAGE AND WATER.

Of the excellence and real worth of the natural pasturage there can be no doubt. There are millions of acres of this pasture equally fitted for cattle and sheep. Cattle would do better on level ground, where the herbage is heavier and more rank. Sheep usually occupy the hills and undulating land, than which no finer runs can scarcely be found anywhere than in New Zealand, with a bountiful supply of water the year round, and good grass. One sheep per acre could with care be maintained, but generally 2 or 3 acres per sheep is required on the larger runs, while on the smaller ones, where considerable paddock farming is resorted to, the number of sheep per acre is materially increased.

Fortunately there are never any severe droughts in New Zealand.

CULTIVATED AND WILD LANDS.

The greater portion of the land in the middle island is now in a state of cultivation; but formerly, before being cultivated, many sections of the country were covered with wild tussock, blue, and other grasses. Many hundreds of thousands of acres were covered with *Phormium tenax* "toi toi" grass, "nigger heads," and other swamp grasses. But drainage and cultivation have now, especially in the Canterbury district, caused most of these grasses to disappear. The most of the country now in a wild state in the north consists of forests of kami timber, fern, and other scrub; in the south many thousands of acres of black birch and other forest trees are found growing on the higher hills, while on the tops of the higher mountains may be found many beautiful alpine plants.

WILD LAND.

The cost of putting wild land under cultivation varies greatly according to the character of the country. For instance, in the Canterbury district the land is for the most part comparatively level and was originally covered with toa or tussock grass, together with the finer variety of native grasses. The cost in this instance was merely nominal, as the land in its natural state in many localities was capable of carrying one sheep to the acre, according to the quality of the land. The principal expense was the fencing off of the various runs, many of which were very inexpensive owing to the natural formation of the ground. In the early days of the colony the fencing consisted largely of ditches with gorse on top, posts and rails, and in latter years wire. The cost of wire fencing is about from £50 to £60 per mile, chiefly used for sheep runs. The other modes of fencing are of old date and are principally confined to small holdings and homesteads. Then, again, in the more hilly and mountainous parts of New Zealand, where brush and timber have to be cleared off, the cost is considerable, in some instances as high as £3 per acre and down as low as 5*s*. an acre. In the latter case, however, it only occurs where there is nothing but a slight growth of ferns to be *cut off and burned.*

LAND TENURE.

The terms under which lands are held practically involves the who subject of land tenure in New Zealand, which will require considerab explanation. I must therefore defer further consideration for the pre ent, but will again refer to it in another part of this report.

Absolute freehold under crown grants varies from 5*s*. to £2 per acr according to quality and location. If on the deferred-payment syster the payments are made by half-yearly installments spread over a peri of fourteen years.

Leaseholds conditional on improvements are made, and residence wi right of purchase on completion of conditions imposed by the govern ment. Pastoral country is leased in large areas, but not more tha will carry 20,000 sheep to any one lease. Such leases are given fo periods varying up to twenty-one years, with rights of resumption i some cases where land is required for closer settlement. In some in stances leaseholds are given without right of purchase, but this clas of leasehold is confined to small areas up to about 320 acres.

The government receives for perpetual leaseholds 5*s*. per acre, thi being the very lowest price under this system when taken up for agri cultural purposes, while the highest rarely goes over 30*s*. The averag price per acre under the perpetual-lease system in the Auckland distric is about 10*s*.

Perpetual leases are for thirty years, with perpetual right of renewa for terms of twenty-one years after the expiration of the first term c thirty years. If at any time a transfer of the lease is made, the valu ation of all improvements is determined by arbitration and belongs t the lessee. Any improvement in the soil reverts to the crown or the i coming tenant.

Perpetual leases can be resumed by the government, but the questi of valuation is settled by arbitration.

Freehold can only be resumed by powers of law and on payment compensation, which is always determined by a competent court or boa of arbitration, no right of resumption being reserved by the crown the grants.

CROWN LANDS.

Roughly estimated, there are about 3,000,000 acres still in the han of the crown, of which a good deal has to be first prepared by clearin off the brush, etc., and sowing it in good grass before being availab for grazing purposes.

I know of no country where crown lands may be obtained for bo fide settlement upon such extremely liberal and advantageous term Any man earnestly desiring land for settlement purposes can get it the most favorable conditions from the government. Indeed, a ma can get land in small areas upon almost any terms he may desire und *the different* land systems in operation here at present, which are mo

liberal and comprehensive. The government, recognizing the necessity and great importance of inviting people to occupy the lands of the colony as being the only true foundation upon which to build a prosperous nation, is doing everything in their power toward the attainment of this one object. It is, therefore, gratifying to note that the efforts of the present government in this respect have been crowned with unmistakable success, even beyond their most sanguine expectations. The once diminishing and despairing population of this colony appears to-day more buoyant and hopeful than for years past, owing to renewed confidence, the returning tide of immigration, and many other most satisfactory evidences of returning prosperity.

The land act of 1885 enacted that crown lands could be sold on the following conditions, viz: For cash, on deferred payments, on perpetual lease, on lease for pastoral purposes in large areas, on lease as small grazing runs, and by free gift under what is known as the homestead system. The foregoing several systems have been applied in the disposition of land according to the character of the land and the requirements of the people. The several classifications of land fall under the terms town, village, suburban, and rural, and are sometimes disposed of under what is known as the special-settlement system, so as to meet the demands of associations of persons desiring to take up suitable areas which they wished to settle upon and work to some extent in common, or on a basis approaching the coöperative principle. This special-settlement system is intended to enable the government to place laborers and townspeople and others who may be willing to undergo a little temporary hardship on the lands of the colony in the hope of their becoming industrious and successful settlers.

The special-settlement system has worked admirably in many instances, while in some cases the success attending the efforts of such settlers has been somewhat indifferent. This failure may be attributed to a combination of causes—want of industry on the part of settlers, poor quality of the land, serious loss of public highways, and in many instances a complete lack of knowing how to proceed intelligently and resolutely to hew out a home in the bush. The instances of failure, however, are rare when a man is willing to work and has some knowledge of the work he has undertaken.

Right of purchase on payment of the cash value of land.—The title being a crown grant or guaranty certificate of title under the "land-transfer act," the price ranges from 5*s.* to £3 per acre, and sometimes more; but probably the average price will not exceed £1 per acre. The price for town lands is £30 per acre; suburban, £3; village, £5 and under per acre.

On deferred payments.—This is a conditional purchase, extending, in the case of suburban lands, over five years, and in the case of rural lands over ten years, or fourteen years in some instances, subject to residential and improvement conditions as prescribed by law. The free-

hold under the above system can be acquired by payment of the balance of purchase money, provided the necessary improvements have been effected. The price of land under the deferred-payment system is usually not less than £4 10*s.* per acre if suburban, but if classed as village lands the price per acre is reduced to £1, according to quality and location, while lands classed as rural or country lands range as low as 5*s.* per acre. It is estimated the cost of land under this system will not exceed an average of probably £1 per acre at the present time.

Perpetual lease.—This is for thirty years at a rental per annum of 5 per cent on the ascertained cash value, which varies from 5*s.* to £3 (the latter price only in isolated cases) per acre. The rent or interest, whichever term we choose to apply, generally averages not to exceed 1*s.* per acre. The lessee has the right of renewal for another twenty-one years on a valuation by arbitrators of the intrinsic value of the land, irrespective of the improvements, the rent being 5 per cent on such value. He is also entitled to renewals every twenty-one years subsequently on the same terms and under the same conditions. In the event of the lessee not electing to take a renewal, the incoming tenant pays the lessee the full value of the improvements. Lessees are bound similarly to deferred payment selectors, that is, to reside on the land and effect prescribed improvements, such as fencing, clearing, and cultivating a certain number of acres annually, etc. It may be observed here that the perpetual-lease system is by far the most popular means of procuring land.

The present government, in leasing lands under this system, do not extend the right of ultimate purchase by the lessee. The object is to prevent banks, corporations, or loan companies from acquiring lands in large areas through mortgages or other means, and holding such lands for speculative purposes, thus seriously retarding the settlement, progress, and industrial development of the country. The perpetual leaseholder has as much right to his land as the freeholder, with only one exception, namely, his inability to mortgage it. The right to mortgage land has not proven to be much of a blessing by a vast majority of mankind who have frequently and unnecessarily availed themselves of the privilege. The rights of the lessee, while he observes the terms of the contract with the government, are as inviolable as those of the freeholder. The tenure of his land is secured to him by the highest authority known to the law of the land, and no one has any more power to dispossess him than if he held the fee simple of his estate. Another great advantage to the intending settler is that if he be a man of limited means, which is usually the case, he can put all the capital he possesses into improvements, thus enabling him to proceed at once with the practical development of his farm, instead of having to spend all his means in payment for the land, which in other countries is frequently the case; or he may have to mortgage his property to enable him to live and develop his land, thereby putting an intolerable yoke

around his neck, from which he may never be able to extricate himself. Under the very generous land laws of New Zealand no such fate awaits the industrious settler. The government goes even further, and advances to enterprising and energetic settlers small sums of money at a nominal interest to encourage and assist them out of difficulties while struggling to make a home for themselves and their families. Under the perpetual-lease system the state becomes the landlord, as the title always remains with the state. It is contended by many that this is "land nationalization" pure and simple; but whatever it may be, it is, to my mind, well worthy of emulation by others.

Pastoral leases.—Under this system areas of 5,000 acres and upwards are offered on lease up to twenty-one years. The outgoing tenant is allowed valuation for improvements and a value not exceeding three years' rent under certain conditions. The lease confers the right of grazing, but not of cropping. There is no restriction as to the number of runs a man or company may take up. The leases are usually sold at auction to the highest bidder. Rentals vary according to the carrying capacity of the land. The average price may not exceed probably 4*d.* or 5*d.* per acre.

Lease as small grazing runs.—Areas not exceeding 20,000 acres, but usually averaging from 1,500 to 4,000 acres, according to position and capacity, are put up at auction and knocked down at an annual rental to the highest bidder. The lease is for twenty-one years, renewable on valuation by arbitration, much the same as in the perpetual-lease system. The rental is 2½ per cent on the ascertained value of the land, exclusive of improvements. The value of the latter is secured to the persons who effected them. The rentals average about 4*d.* per acre per annum. Only one run can be taken up by one person. The freehold can not be purchased. Residence and specified improvements are compulsory.

Homestead system.—A family can select land, after due notification to the proper authorities, to the extent of 200 acres, adults selecting 50 acres and minors 20 acres. Residence on the land is compulsory after six months on open and twelve months on "bush" land, up to five years from date of selection. Buildings and cultivation are also insisted on by the government. On compliance with all the conditions imposed by the homestead act, the family obtained a Crown grant without payment for the land.

The special provisions of the land act enable the government, as already stated, to establish the people on village and on rural lands under the provisions of what is termed the village special-settlements act, and to assist such settlers to improve their selections under certain conditions.

The land laws of 1887 and 1888 provide for the throwing open of all Crown lands in such manner that settlers might apply for land as they preferred and purchase the land for cash or on deferred payments ex-

tending over five years for suburban and ten or fourteen years for rura land, or on perpetual lease, as already described.

The cash purchaser can secure 640 acres of first-class land and 2,00 acres of second-class land in any one district, while the deferred pa ment selector may take up only 640 acres in the whole colony; but t perpetual lease selector has the privilege of taking up 640 acres of fir class land and 2,000 acres of second class in the same district.

The present government appears to prefer to dispose of lands to a sociations under the "farm homestead" or coöperative system. Th method of encouraging people to occupy the lands is a new departure from the usual course. It is, in other words, an experiment calculated to find employment for those who are invariably found in the ranks of the unemployed. What this effort to create a desire for agricultural pursuits among the laboring classes of the colony will result in remains to be seen. The system seems to work satisfactorily up to the present, but, being in the embryo state, it would be hazardous to express a decided opinion as yet.

Rural lands of a hilly character and of indifferent quality are offered on the "small-grazing" system. The more remote and mountainous lands are usually let on pastoral lease. Town lands of special value are sold for cash at auction. Village lands are offered generally with option of tenure, but preferably on the perpetual-lease system.

Under the village-homestead system, which limits selection to 5 acres or one lot, residence and certain improvements are compulsory Leases are granted for thirty years, renewable for terms of twenty-on years, with no right to purchase the freehold. The government pr vides money under certain conditions for the erection of a house an certain improvements. Rent and interest are 5 per cent on capit value.

As regards resumption, the crown possesses the right to resum alienated lands for public-works purposes, such as railways and road after survey and due notice to the parties concerned, on payment fair compensation, usually determined by a proper tribunal. Highwa may be taken within five years of alienation on payment of doub value.

Deferred-payment lands can be resumed for public-works purpos on the same terms as have been previously stated.

Perpetual-lease lands may be resumed for public purposes on pa ment of fair compensation as determined by arbitration.

Pastoral lands can be resumed for settlement purposes on prop allowance being made in the rent therefor, while roads can be taken c pastoral lands without compensation. Any lands may be resumed c payment of fair compensation. This applies to all tenures of land.

In the foregoing remarks on the land tenure of New Zealand I hav endeavored to give in detail the several systems under which land ma *be obtained* in this colony, some of which are original and unique.

WATER SUPPLY.

The water supply is practically inexhaustible. It is derived from springs and rivers fed by the melting of snow in the mountains. The quality of the water is especially good in all parts of the colony. At present those portions which remain unwatered, especially in the Canterbury district, are being supplied with water races.

The water supply is never-failing. In districts where there is not an abundance of water some of them are being supplied now from water races. These water races are in turn supplied from rivers in the districts as follows:

In Ashburton, in the Canterbury district, there are 400,000 acres of land watered by water races derived from the rivers Hinds, Ashburton, and Rakaia. There are 900 miles of water races, distributing about 50,000 gallons per minute from all sources. The cost was about 1*s.* 8*d.* per acre, or about 7½ per cent on the original cost of £27,000. This includes maintenance and interest.

In Waitohi Flat there are 9,000 acres with 33 miles of water ditches, the original cost being estimated at £3,000. The cost of maintenance is about 2*d.* per acre.

In Seadown district there are 20,500 acres, with 69 miles of water races at a cost of £2,750. The cost of maintenance is 2*d.* per acre.

In Rangitata district there are 32,000 acres watered by 85 miles of water ditches. The original cost was £1,500. The cost of maintenance is about 2*d.* per acre.

In Woodbury there are 3,500 acres and 17 miles of water races, at a cost of £565. The cost of maintenance is 3*d.* per acre.

In Orari and Waihi there are 4,000 acres watered by 25 miles of water ditches. The cost was $1,500; other expenses, 2½*d.* per acre.

In Geraldine Flat there are 2,250 acres watered by 17 miles of ditches. The original cost was £900. The working expense is at an average of 3*d.* per acre.

The total number of acres watered by artificial means is 502,750, with 1,146 miles of water races, the original cost of which amounted to $38,710, while the present cost of working averages about 2½*d.* per acre. In nearly every instance the works cost more than was anticipated, owing, in a measure, to the number of branch races being applied for by landowners. The whole of the races are open ditches and are at present only used for stock, the races having not yet been utilized for irrigation purposes. The cost of maintenance is charged to each landowner in proportion to the area watered. If a large area, the rate is comparatively small; if a small area, the rate is generally higher.

The source of supply is in all cases a river, and the intake consists of a filter box sunk in the river and covered over again. When well on the land the main race is an open ditch to the district boundary limit. From this small branches are cut as required. All those dis

tricts have a never-failing supply, which can be always regulated at the head works by a self-acting flood gate. The value of all lands watered in this manner has been enhanced to a large extent, more especially so in those districts where without water they were practically useless. Stockmen now are enabled to feed and fatten stock equally as well as in the more favored districts, in respect of water, at comparatively little expense. The system having proved beneficial, it is more than likely other districts similarly affected will probably before long be laid under the water-race system.

There is another water district, known as the Selwyn district, in which there are 324,400 acres of land with 560 miles of water races, at a total cost of £50,800, averaging about 3*s.* 1*d.* per acre. The annual cost to the consumer ranges from 20*s.* to 25*s.* for each 100 acres. This meets working expenses and interest on original cost.

There are other artificial waterworks in the colony which I think it will not be necessary to refer to in detail, such as cities and towns. It may be as well, however, to mention the water supply of Christchurch which is principally derived from artesian wells. These wells are sunk in Canterbury for nearly every dwelling, and the small cost and general success has made this almost the chief means of supplying water. Previous to the year 1885 these wells were sunk by hand or manual labor, but since that time steam power has entirely superseded hand labor, and there are at present about ten well-sinking machines working in the district.

I send herewith a photograph of a flowing artesian well in Christchurch, New Zealand, including the well-sinking machinery.

In Christchurch there are three different strata. The first stratum ranges from 60 feet, with a rise a few feet above ground level, to 140 feet, with a flow of 10 feet above the surface. The quantity through the usual pipe of 1½ inches varies, according to locality, from 1 to 2 gallons per minute. The cost of such wells is 1*s.* 3*d.* per foot for 1½ inch pipe and 2*s.* for 2-inch pipe. The second and third stratum wells are usually sunk for private purposes. Generally speaking, a 2-inch pipe is used and costs £25 for 150 feet, £40 for 200 feet deep, and 6*s.* 6*d.* per foot after a depth of 200 feet has been reached. These wells are generally used for operating rams to force the water to a higher level. The driving of a second-stratum well is quite different from a shallow one. The pipe is driven open from the top and kept clear by hollow rods with water forced down and débris washed up between the well pipes and the rods. This process is practically the same as that used in the United States.

WOOL IN TRANSIT.

The government of New Zealand is the principal railway carrier, and the public have their claim against the government if it can be proved that any damage sustained, either by individuals or the public, has been

caused through negligence of the railway authorities. As regards damages in transit from other causes, such as fire, that can be provided for on the part of the owners by insurance.

LAWS REGARDING CONTAGION.

The most stringent legislation has been enacted for the prevention of contagion among sheep. The colony is divided off into districts, and sheep inspectors are appointed by the government to examine and *inspect sheep in each district.* The sheep inspector has almost unlim-

ited powers under the sheep-inspection act of 1890. He is to have free access to every sheep-owner's premises in his district at all times, and should a sheep-owner refuse to comply with the instructions or demands made upon him by the inspector in respect to having his sheep rounded up for inspection, or for refusing to allow the inspector to do so himself, such owner is fined £100 for the first offense.

Should the inspector call upon a sheep-owner to make a declaration as to the condition of his flock and such owner should make a false declaration, he is fined in a sum not to exceed £50 nor less than £10. But if any owner of sheep makes a declaration knowing the same to be false, he is, upon conviction, fined £100 or imprisonment not exceeding six months.

Any owner or person in charge of sheep refusing to give evidence as to the condition of such sheep is liable to a fine of £50. Every person who in answering inquiries before the sheep inspector makes any statement knowing the same to be false is liable to a penalty of £100 or imprisonment for six months.

The chief inspector shall publish in the Government Gazette every three months a list of diseased flocks in each sheep district. The inspector is authorized to take possession of infected sheep and clean the same at the owner's expense. Should the destruction of infected sheep be deemed expedient for the protection of other flocks in the immediate vicinity, the district inspector may communicate his views to the chief inspector, who in turn informs the minister in charge of this department who alone has authority to order the destruction of such sheep. The owner of sheep so destroyed is entitled to compensation; the amount of such compensation is always determined by arbitration.

When an inspector has taken possession of any infected sheep, it is his duty to cause all the sheep in the flock to be wool-branded with the letter "S," and to have the rams kept separate from the ewes in such flock until the same is clean.

If any inspector shall be satisfied that any sheep pasturing on crown lands occupied under a license as a run have become infected with scab, he shall report the matter to the minister, and the governor may direct that a notice issue at once "suspending the license issued in respect to such run or any portion thereof; such license shall therefore stand suspended until the minister shall be advised that sheep may be permitted to enter therein without fear of infection." No compensation is allowed in this instance. The owner of infected sheep must report to the nearest inspector and to all the flock-owners of adjoining runs, within forty-eight hours after he has learned thereof, under a penalty of £50 and £10 additional for each twenty-four hours after the period of forty-eight hours shall have elapsed.

All infected sheep must be kept in inclosures or shepherded. An owner having several flocks on the same run or adjoining runs is not *permitted, in* case of infection, to remove such sheep to any other run

for a period of three months after he shall have obtained a "clean" certificate from an inspector that all the flocks in his possession are clean.

Every person who abandons any infected sheep, whether alive or dead, upon any highway or upon any land whatever not in the actual possession of such person is liable to a penalty of £50 and not less than £5 on conviction.

Any person who removes or causes to be removed from any land in his possession any sheepskins infected with scab is subject to a fine of £50.

If any sheep are found in a public pound or yard infected with scab, the inspector may, if he deem it best, cause all such sheep to be destroyed or twice dipped under his personal supervision. In case of destruction under these conditions no compensation whatever is allowed.

No sheep can be shipped from one port to another within the colony without first having procured a clean certificate from the local inspector. Before obtaining such certificate the owner or agent of such sheep must make a declaration before the inspector or a justice of the peace that such sheep have not within the three months preceding been infected or mixed with infected sheep, or had been in any yard or on any vessel or car wherein there were any infected sheep. Any person making such declaration, the same being untrue, is liable to a penalty of £100 or six months' imprisonment. The master of any vessel carrying sheep between ports in the colony who allows such sheep to land is subject to a fine of £100, unless he has first had all such sheep examined and passed by an inspector. The master of any vessel carrying sheep from any of the Australian colonies who permits such sheep to land without being examined by an inspector may be fined £100.

If any inspector is satisfied that any sheep in a flock are infected with lice, he must give the owner notice to dip such flock forthwith. But if the inspector is satisfied such sheep are intended or fit for slaughter, he may, in his discretion, postpone the giving of such notice to dip for a period not exceeding one month. After notice has been given, should the owner or his agent refuse or neglect to dip sheep so infected, he is liable on conviction to a fine of £50. Ewes need not be dipped during lambing season. A dip in relation to sheep infected with lice means any fixed or movable appliance which the inspector may approve of. The owner has to satisfy the inspector as to the efficacy of the ingredients used for dipping.

If an owner of infected sheep permits the same to stray on the lands of others, or drives such infected sheep along any highway which passes beyond the limits of his farm, he is subject for such neglect to a fine of £100. The same protection and general regulations apply to Angora goats as to sheep. If any infected sheep are found trespassing and are not removed after due notice, they may be destroyed immediately by the owner of the land upon which they are found. Any person throwing

infected sheep into any pond or stream is liable to a fine of £20 and less than £5. The owner of any sheep infected with catarrh at time of its death, who fails to consume the carcass by fire or bury it least 3 feet under the ground within 12 hours after death, is liable t fine of £5 for each offense so committed.

Every occupier of a run, who shall muster his flock for either purpose of dipping or dressing, cutting and tailing, earmarking, or moval from the run, shall give each adjoining flock-owner twenty-f hours' notice of his intention to do so, under penalty of £20. This done to enable adjoining owners to see if any of their sheep ha strayed.

Every owner of sheep must wool-brand his flock immediately af shearing, under penalty of £5.

Every person who willfully communicates or causes to be commu cated either of the diseases known as scab or catarrh is guilty o misdemeanor.

No person can lawfully remove more than one-third of the whole of any sheep, whether his own property or not; should he do so he liable for each offense to a fine of £10.

Every person who willfully or maliciously destroys, defaces, or alt any tattoo mark or any earmark, or is a party to any such destructi or defacement, or who crops or cuts the ear of any sheep straight acr or slices off by a straight cut any part of the ear of any sheep, or w makes an earmark on any sheep exceeding three-fourths of an inch length or half an inch in width or diameter, or who brands or ma with a brand or mark of which he is not the registered owner, is lia to a penalty of £50 for each sheep so unlawfully marked or branded

I have condensed in the forgoing remarks the substance of all legislation that has any special reference to sheep-dipping and methods employed to prevent the spread of contagion, the duties a powers of sheep inspectors, etc., which I may venture to hope m prove satisfactory. I have spared no pains in my endeavors to co this point as fully as possible, recognizing the importance of the effo made and the means adopted to protect the sheep industry in this colo The sheep act of 1890 is, as will be seen by the foregoing conden extracts from it, exceedingly stringent and comprehensive, a gr deal of which might with much advantage be introduced for the p tection and promotion of the sheep industry in the United States.

RABBIT-PROOF FENCES.

There has been considerable legislation on the rabbit nuisance, l the irrepressible "bunny" apparently continues to flourish despite mass of legislation passed for his destruction.

Inspectors are appointed with power to enter upon any private public lands for the purpose of noting whether the several rabb *nuisance* acts are being complied with. Any person who willfully

structs such inspector in the performance or execution of his duty is subject to a penalty of £20.

A "rabbit-proof fence" is defined to be any fence or portion of a fence which may be erected or converted for the purpose of preventing the passage of rabbits of any of the descriptions following, that is to say:

(1) A substantial upright paling fence, not less than 3 feet from the surface of the ground, and the palings sunken into the earth not less than 6 inches from the surface, with no greater distance between the palings than 1 inch.

(2) A post and rail fence of substantial material firmly erected, not less than 3 feet in height from the ground, or a substantial wire fence not less than 3 feet from the ground, with four wires tightly stretched, or three wires and a top rail, in either case with posts of durable wood or iron, not more than 9 feet apart, and having galvanized wire netting, not larger than 1⅝ inches in the mesh, firmly attached or affixed thereto throughout its entire length and height, and pegged to the ground or sunken into the ground not less than 6 inches from the surface.

The minister in charge may, if necessary build a rabbit-proof fence across any public road or bridge with swinging gates, but this must be done so as to cause as little inconvenience to the traveling public as possible. Every person who, whether using the road or bridge as a highway or not, leaves open any swinging gate in a rabbit-proof fence shall be liable on summary conviction to a penalty not exceeding £5.

Any person who willfully damages, or causes to be damaged, any rabbit-proof fence is, on conviction, liable to imprisonment for any period not exceeding twelve months, without the option of a fine. If any person set loose, or permit to be set loose, any live rabbits, or causes them to be transferred from one part of the colony to another, or is found with live rabbits in his possession, he is subject to a fine of £50 or twelve months' imprisonment.

Whenever a good rabbit-proof fence has been erected there is a perceptible decrease in the number of rabbits. This is particularly observable in the number of rabbits inside an inclosure and those found in the immediate vicinity outside the fences. Poisoning is being systematically carried on outside with considerable effect, but it has not been found necessary to resort to this method within rabbit-proof inclosures.

There has been a good number of ferrets, stoats, and weasels introduced into the colony to prey upon the rabbits, but without much effect. Indeed, in many localities the vermin are becoming a great annoyance and threaten to become even a greater nuisance than the rabbit they were supposed to exterminate.

The only practical or thoroughly reliable remedy for the extermination of the Australian and New Zealand rabbit pest lies in the occupation of the land by cutting it up into small area, fencing, and otherwise

improving it. Then will "bunny" rapidly disappear from view and cease to be either a nuisance or a pest to the colonists. This has been amply demonstrated wherever small farmers have gone and fenced and improved their holdings. The rabbit recedes before the woodman's ax, the plow, and the schoolhouse. Whoever encourages this idea most will prove the greatest benefactor to the colonies.

The total number of rabbit skins exported from 1884 to 1891, inclusive, was 85,900,000, valued at £769,000.

DESTRUCTION OF GRASS AND FLOCKS.

Whatever destruction of grass there may be can not be ascertained sufficiently close to enable one to state intelligently and accurately. Speaking generally, the rabbits do, of course, destroy considerable grass in some districts of New Zealand where they have not been fenced against. The methods adopted for their destruction have been already referred to.

There is a bird called the "kea," which is generally found amongst the high ranges, that preys upon young lambs and weak ewes by perching on their backs and digging out by their beaks the kidneys of the sheep. There is no legislation against the kea as yet, probably for the reason that the damage it causes is inconsiderable.

DROUGHT.

New Zealand can not be said to suffer from droughts, although the rainfall for the last three years has been considerably less than on previous years, but no appreciable damage resulted.

There are, of course, seasons when the rainfall is much lighter, but there is nothing approaching a drought at any time.

New Zealanders do not, as a rule, experience any drawbacks through drought; but in seasons when there is less than the usual quantity of rain the effects on the wool and sheep markets are a diminishing of the quantities, owing to mortality and a perceptible deterioration in both the carcass and wool in the sheep that survive. The result is that such produce is neglected by buyers who desire a first-class article; such sheep and wool must therefore suffer a drop. If a drought were long continued and extended over a considerable area, the short supply which this would cause might more than counterbalance the loss by causing an enhancement of prices. However, this method of reasoning is only hypothetical. As far as this colony is concerned, it has had no practical experience in this respect.

FLEECE-WASHING.

There is no fleece-washing on the sheep's back in New Zealand. Inferior fleeces are usually washed, while the sandy or earthy wools are *sometimes* scoured after shearing.

Occasionally a few sheep may be washed in brooks or small streams, but usually the washing is done after shearing, both by hand and machinery.

QUALITY OF WOOL.

Last season there were exported from all New Zealand—

	Per cent.
Greasy	81
Washed	5
Scoured	14

In addition there were about 4,000,000 pounds of greasy wool retained in the colony, most of it in the Canterbury district, for milling purposes.

WEIGHT OF FLEECES.

The average weight of fleeces is estimated as follows:

	Pounds.
Merinos	4 to 7
Quarter-breds	6½
Half-breds	7½
Three-quarter breds	8½
Leicesters	10½
Lincolns	11

WEIGHT OF SHEEP.

The average weight of sheep is as follows:

	Pounds.
hed sheep, full blood:	
Merinos	70
Hampshiredowns	90
Southdowns	75
Lincolns	90
Leicesters	80
tock sheep, full blood:	
Wethers, about	60
Ewes, about	50
Cross-breed	60

The above refers to dead weights; live weight would be fully one-hird in excess.

There is not much variation in weight apparent; but the quality, so is alleged by those who profess to know, is continually improving om stock within the colony. There are occasional introductions of ew and first-class blood into New Zealand. It appears advisable to ost large flock owners to introduce new and improved stock occasionlly, as there is no doubt flocks will improve and gradually increase in eight by so doing.

SKIRTING.

As far as New Zealand is concerned, it is reasonable to presume kirting was introduced when shearing commenced; at least this is the nformation obtained from the most reliable sources.

It is authentically recorded that about 1850 or 1851 skirting must have been introduced into the Canterbury district, for in the latter year about 100 bales of wool were shipped to Melbourne.

Information can not be obtained of what became of fleeces of wool prior to the above year; but it is more than likely that all wool shorn before that time was used for domestic purposes, which must have been much needed just then, owing to the scarcity of manufactures in the colony and importations from abroad.

The percentage of skirt to good wool is from half a pound to one and one-half pounds, according to quality.

The difference in price of skirted and unskirted wool is from a half penny to 1½*d.* per pound.

Skirting gives an increased value to the fleece, while for the "oddments," skirtings, etc., a fair proportion of value is always realized; and, in addition, when a clip is skirted buyers can and do purchase with greater confidence, and thus in nearly every instance a better price is obtained. The difference in value between skirted and unskirted is about 5 per cent in favor of skirted, and, taking into consideration the lesser price received for skirtings, the result is invariably a gain to the grower of at least 3 per cent. Unskirted wool always looks unsightly, but all the more so after sweating in a ship's hold, where the stained pieces have contaminated all the wool with which they were in contact.

CLIPS OF 1890–'91.

Approximately 104,100,000 pounds were shipped from June, 1890, to June, 1891, of the estimated value of £4,217,100, from New Zealand.

From June, 1890, to June, 1891, there were exported from—

	Bales.
New Zealand	308,674
Victoria	420,527
New South Wales	562,393
Queensland	121,968
South Australia	156,065
Western Australia	29,460
Tasmania	20,240
Total	1,619,330

I have already given the value of New Zealand wool, but the value of the other Australian colonies can not be ascertained here at present.

WOOL EXPORTS.

Wool shipped from New Zealand may be said to be almost entirely sent to the London market. There is no evidence or statistics to show that there is any wool shipped to other countries, with the single exception of the United States, and the quantity shipped directly to the latter is very trifling. I can see no reason why wool buyers and manufacturers can not come here and buy from first hands, thereby saving

ıe middleman's commission and the cost of transshipment from London. It would encourage trade and find employment for our own ships nd seamen; besides, there must be considerable saving and more satıfaction to those engaged in woolen manufactures. I have advocated hese ideas in a former report, and I am pleased to notice the trade in his respect is increasing and beginning to attract considerable attenion. I feel certain the advantage of buying in this market must, ıpon due consideration, commend itself to those concerned in the wool trade.

COSTS, FREIGHTS, INSURANCE, ETC.

The cost of sales in the local market is 2½ per cent up to the value of £500; over that, 1¼ per cent; in London, 2 per cent. The cost in other countries is unknown.

Freight from Lyttleton to London by steamers is as follows: Greasy, five-eighths of a penny per pound; slipe, eleven-sixteenths of a penny per pound; washed or scoured, three-fourths of a penny per pound; all weights are gross, and if undumped one-fourth penny per pound extra. In sailing vessels the freights are: Greasy, one-half penny per pound; slipe, nine-sixteenths of a penny per pound; washed or scoured, five-eighths of a penny per pound, with 5 per cent primage. Insurance to London, per steamer, is 20.4 per cent; by sailing vessel, 37.16 per cent, with usual discount of 10 and 15 per cent.

Freight to Antwerp is one-sixteenth penny per pound additional to London rates. There is no rate of insurance fixed for Antwerp direct, and any wool for that port would have to be reshipped from London under separate policy.

As far as can be ascertained, there is no wool shipped direct to Marseilles from New Zealand. The Compagnie des Messageries Maritimes, trading between French and Australian ports would not pay the cost of freight, etc., from New Zealand to Australia; hence it is there are o direct shipments of wool to Marseilles.

Freight to New York is three-sixteenths pence per pound additional London rates. Insurance by sailing vessel is 35 per cent; by steamer, 0 per cent.

There is no direct steam or sailing connection between New Zealand rts and Boston. Freight and insurance rates are quoted the same to New York. Insurance is 35 per cent for sailing vessels and 30 r cent for steamers.

OCEAN TRANSIT TIME.

The time required for transit is as follows:

	Days.
il steamers to London	42 to 42
rgo steamers to London	47 to 60
iling vessels to London	80 to 100
iling vessels to New York	80 to 95
iling vessels to Boston	80 to 95
eamer to San Francisco	20

There is no steam communication between New Zealand and eastern United States ports; consequently I can not give the time required for transit.

I may, however, mention here that the large cargo steamers have almost wholly displaced the sailing vessels between London and New Zealand ports, and to the benefit of both importer and exporter. I have no doubt there will be a steamer plying between New Zealand and New York in the near future; the tendency of the times strongly indicates this.

SHEEP VS. POPULATION.

So far as New Zealand is concerned, there is apparently no limit at present to its wool-producing capacity. Every industry in the colony is capable of large expansion and will continue to increase while the population can find remunerative employment. There is no doubt there are vast tracts of land in this colony that can scarcely be utilized for any other purpose than sheep-growing, yet at the same time there is a great deal of land used for sheep runs to-day that could be profitably employed for agricultural purposes. All such land will in time be needed to meet the ever-increasing desire of men to own a piece of land for themselves, whereon they may build the foundations of a permanent home. I know there are many men in New Zealand who have little faith in its future, but "croakers" can be found in abundance in every country; consequently New Zealand could scarcely be expected to be an exception to the general rule. For my own part, I can see nothing but the brightest prospects before the colonists of New Zealand. I can also see that, while the sheep and wool growing industry can and may be for a very few years to come materially increased, the days of large areas of land being used for wool-growing will soon be numbered with the things of the past.

It was a vexed question for a time whether it should be "sheep" or "population;" but now, happily, that subject is finally disposed of in favor of population. The sheep must disappear as the demands of an ever-increasing population manifest themselves, as they are beginning to now in this colony. I am therefore of opinion, although I am aware that thousands will disagree with me, that the wool-growing industry will reach its highest limit in the next two or three years, owing to the increasing demand for land for settlement purposes. The settlement of the land in small areas is very properly encouraged by the present government.

JNO. D. CONNOLLY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, April 14, 1892.

SPECIAL CONSULAR REPORTS.

PAUPERISM AND PUBLIC CHARITIES

IN

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

REPORTS FROM THE CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES IN ANSWER TO A CIRCULAR FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE.

ISSUED FROM THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS, DEPARTMENT OF STATE.

ALL REQUESTS FOR THESE REPORTS SHOULD BE ADDRESSED TO THE SECRETARY OF STATE.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1893.

DEPARTMENT CIRCULAR.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, February 10, 1892.

To the Consular Officers of the United States:

GENTLEMEN: The Department has been requested by representatives of the associated charities of various cities to obtain, through the good offices of its consular officers, certain information regarding the manner of dispensing public charities, and of controlling and abating that class of vagrants generally designated "tramps," in foreign countries.

The Department, appreciating the importance of the subject, instructs you, at your earliest convenience, to answer the following interrogatories:

(1) How is that class of vagrants, generally designated "tramps," controlled or regulated?

(2) What are the methods employed for the distribution of alms?

(3) What efforts are being made for the punishment or suppression of begging?

(4) What efforts are being made to convert "beggars" and "tramps" to self-supporting members of society, and what success has attended such efforts?

(5) What are the effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities?

(6) What has proved to be the best system of distribution of public and private charities, looking to the elevation of the recipients of such charities to the condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence, and their ultimate rehabilitation as good members of society.

(7) What efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriages of paupers, and what have been the effects of such restraints on marriage?

To avoid repetition, you are further instructed that, where there is general legislation or regulation universally affecting the above subjects throughout territory subject to the jurisdiction of any consulate-general, the report of the consul-general upon the purport and effect of such legislation or regulation will be sufficient upon that head, and the other consular officers may confine their reports to local phases and conditions.

I am, gentlemen, your obedient servant,

WILLIAM F. WHARTON,
Assistant Secretary.

BLIC CHARITIES AND VAGRANCY IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL GOLDSCHMIDT, OF VIENNA.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

r regulating and controlling all that class of people who travel t without work or occupation and without any means of subsist-, a special law was created in 1885, the so-called "vagrant law," of h the following paragraphs specially relate to the treatment of mps" and beggars:

TION 1. Whoever travels about without occupation or work, and who is not in ition to show that he possesses the means for his subsistence or that he tries to hem in an honest way, is to be punished as a vagrant.

punishment is severe arrest from one to three months; there may also be ad-d one or more increases of this punishment, as indicated in section 253 (*a* to *e*) penal code of the 27th May, 1852.

. 2. For begging is to be punished: (1) Who in public places begs from house use or who appeals to public charity from dislike to work. (2) Who induces to ends out, or lets to others, minors for the purpose of begging.

punishment is severe arrest of from eight days to three months.

. 3. Persons able to work, who have no income and no lawful occupation and ndanger the security of person or property, can be held by the police authority w within a time indicated to them that they maintain themselves in a lawful If they do not comply with this request from dislike to work, they are to be hed with severe arrest of from eight days to three months; there may also be ged one or more increases of this punishment, as indicated in section 253 (*a* to *e*) e penal code of the 27th May, 1852.

. 4. Every community, in the territory of which sojourns or is found a person o work, who neither possesses the means for his subsistence nor any lawful ation, has the right to give to such person work according to his abilities st payment in money or in kind.

uch person refuses to do the work assigned to him, he is to be punished with s arrest of from eight days to one month.

. 7. The trying and punishment of the offenses indicated in the foregoing para-s as well as the trying and punishment of section 3 of the law of May 10, take place by the courts.

The court may in case of a condemnation pronounce in the verdict the admis bility of retention in a forcing workhouse.

With regard to the verdict of admissibility of retention in a forcing workhou appeal may be made in favor of the accused if the verdict is for retention and agai the accused if the verdict is not for retention.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

The care for the poor is the duty of the community to which the po person belongs. A pauper must also be supported by a strange co munity in which he happens to be, but the community to which he b longs has to reimburse the costs to the other community, if those rel tives of the pauper, which are obliged to care for the same (in ascen ing and descending line, including the husband or wife if not legall divorced), prove to be without the necessary means.

The care for the poor by the community is confined to the distrib tion of the necessary support and in case of sickness to medical car

The community also cares for the education of pauper children.

The community determines the way of caring for the poor within t existing laws. The pauper has no right to demand a certain kind support.

The numerous legacies for the benefit of the poor and other priva charities are as a rule placed to the disposition of the poor departme of the respective communities.

There is of course a vast number of society, private, and religio charity funds, and charities which are dispensed independently of t community charity institutions.

The assistance to the poor by the community is extended only in far as they are not able to provide for themselves. Applicants for al who are able to work are to be held to the execution of suitable wor if necessary by compulsion.

The community can not, in case of momentary need, refuse assis ance to paupers belonging to another community, but such communit has the right, as before indicated, to demand repayment from the hom community of the pauper or from his relatives which are by civil other law obliged to his maintenance. Under the same provisions t community has to tend paupers who fall sick within its territories long—until they may be discharged without danger to their own healt or to that of others.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

The efforts made to suppress and punish begging are explained the paragraphs of the "vagrant law" given above.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

The efforts made for converting beggars and tramps into self-su porting members of society consist in placing them into forced wor *houses*, as indicated in the "vagrant law," or into houses of correctio

but the success obtained so far has not been very satisfactory. The best results as yet are obtained with youthful vagrants and criminals in houses of correction specially established for them.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

The dispensation of public charities, not being indiscriminate, is working very wholesome effects, but on the contrary the indiscriminate dispensation of private, uncontrolled charities only encourages idleness and other vices, and as a rule only benefits the unworthy.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

As already mentioned the distributions of charities by the poor departments of the communities has proved to be by far the most successful, but the retention of vagrants (tramps) and professional beggars in the different houses and institutions of labor and correction, is of good only as long as such people are retained. In the moment when they leave these houses they spend the money they have saved and the old life of vagrancy begins afresh.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

There is no law existing to prevent the intermarriage of paupers, but in smaller communities all possible difficulties (although not justified by law) are made to paupers in obtaining a marriage license, but this has for its only consequence that the couples cohabitate without being married, and a frightful increase of illegitimate children. In provinces where this practice is customary to prevent intermarriage of paupers, as for instance in the Alpine districts, 60 per cent of all births are illegitimate.

JULIUS GOLDSCHMIDT,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Vienna, Austria, May 14, 1892.

AUSTRIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL HARTIGAN, OF TRIESTE.

I am indebted to the courtesy of Hofrat v. Pichler, imperial and royal police director, for the following information in reply to Department circular dated February 10, 1892, on "Public charities and vagrancy in foreign countries."

Herr Pichler states that these subjects and the enactments concerning them are so intimately connected, it is impracticable to answer the interrogatories *seriatum*.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

The laws of July 27, 1871, act of the Empire No. 88, of May 10, 187 act of the Empire No. 108, and of May 24, 1885, act of the Empire No 89 and 90, are designed to abate or restrict the nuisance of vagrants, o tramps and beggars, whilst the act of settlement law (right of resi dence), of December 3, 1863, act of the Empire No. 105, treats the sys tem of poor laws in general.

Based on the three first mentioned acts of the Empire, vagrants and beggars are punished with prison confinement not more than three months, or placed in institutions for compulsory work, or houses of correction, or forever or temporarily expelled from the place where they have been roving about or begging, and conveyed by force to the community to which they belong. By the same laws these communities are authorized to give to those who are capable of working some adequate employment, if such can be found, as an offset for their board and keeping; and they are also enjoined to place those vagrants and beggars who might be a source of danger to life and property under strict police surveillance.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

According to the above cited act of settlement law, the care of the poor is generally intrusted to the community, which in case of poverty is called upon to support their members, *i. e.*, to provide for them the necessary subsistence, and to feed and provide for them in cases of illness. When nonresidents are cared for, the expense is charged to the district or community where they belong.

Besides these public institutions to provide for the poor, there are charitable societies, antibegging societies, houses of reserve, hospitals asylums, and poor kitchens, where meals can be procured for a trifle Private donations and legacies are of course a great help and greatly facilitate the task in many communities.

To centralize the foregoing modes of providing for the poor is now a problem for the authorities, and the different provinces of the monarchy have been occupied a long time in finding a solution to this question.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

As regards the question by what means the prevention of intermarriages of paupers has successfully been tried, it must be remarked that according to paragraph 47 of the A. E. G. L., the consent of the political authority was required for the marriage of destitute persons, but this statute was abolished in the single domains of the Crown (Tirol Vorarlberg, and Krain excepted) already in the years 1867 and 1768 because experience had shown that the object of this interdiction (law)—*i. e.*, the prevention of the multiplication of poor children—has in no

way been attained, the percentage of illegitimate births having increased from year to year to the detriment of the legitimate ones.

External pressure, Herr Pichler concludes, will no doubt always remain ineffectual, and only a national-economical education can tend to prevent an increase of unsound or unhealthy elements.

JAMES F. HARTIGAN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Trieste, May 14, 1892.

BELGIUM.

REPORT BY CONSUL DANFORTH, OF LIEGE.

In submitting this report upon public charity and vagrancy, I wish to call special attention to the translation of the new law upon mendicity and vagrancy that came into force at the beginning of the present year (1892).

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

Three features in it deserve careful study:

First. The measures adopted to prevent confirmed mendicity and vagrancy.

Second. The equitable distribution of expense, by which the inmates of public institutions shall not be unduly increased on the one hand, nor become, on the other hand, excessively burdensome.

Third. The emphasis placed upon treatment of the young by separating them from old and confirmed offenders.

I can not withhold the remark of one whose long study, broad observation, and high professional position are entitled to peculiar weight. M. Thiry, professor of criminal law in the University of Liege, writes: "If you would succeed in diminishing vagrancy and begging, as well as crime, give more attention to the children."

That class of vagrants generally designated "tramps" is controlled or regulated by law of November, 1891, which came into force January 1, 1892. A translation of this law is annexed.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

As to the methods employed for the distribution of alms there are two kinds of boards of charity:

(*a*) An official board, under the supervision of which a number of committees work. The members of these committees, who do the work gratuitously, have to visit the poor in their homes, give them good advice, look to the cleanliness of the dwelling, inquire about the education

of the children and their attendance at school, and dispense assistance and relief.

(*b*) The private boards of charity connected with various societies and churches. Amongst these the most important are the societies of St. Vincent connected with each parish. The members of these boards visit the poor in their homes, like the members of the official boards of charity, distribute relief, give good advice, and attend to the education of the children and everything aiding in the amelioration of the condition of the poor.

The substantial relief is mostly given in tickets for bread, a smaller part in clothing, sometimes in tools, and very seldom in money.

In addition to the law mentioned under No. 1, no assistance is granted to professional beggars either from the public or from the private boards of charity.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

In regard to efforts for the conversion of beggars and tramps into self-supporting members of society, it may be said that before the new law, which came into force on January 1, 1892, there existed in Belgium institutions of reform for tramps and beggars, but it seems they had small success. In the department for the younger delinquents they were generally worse when leaving than when entering, and so these institutions were a mere preparation for the poorhouse or even the prison. The poorhouse was a failure as an institution of reform. On account of the mixing of the confined, without consideration as to age and morality, the bad did not improve and the partially good became entirely spoiled. This deterioration is taken into consideration, as will be seen by the perusal of the new law. The schools of charity and the poorhouses, with the separation provided for the confined according to their ages, have been considered as the most important means for improvement.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

It can not be denied that there is still indiscriminate distribution of charity with its attendant evils, but the boards of charity design to prevent this and the visits have this as one of their objects.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

The best system of almsgiving, according to all those who take the liveliest interest in the matter, is to help the poor as well as the liberated prisoners to earn their own living. This is especially done by the Society for the Liberated Prisoners. The members of this society visit the families of prisoners still undergoing the penalty of confinement and also provide for the prisoners themselves on leaving confinement the necessary tools for their trade and suitable clothing. They take care of their maintenance until they have work, and try even to provide this. Nevertheless, most interest is taken in the children of prisoners and in young delinquents.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

Nothing is done to prevent intermarriages of paupers; on the contrary, a society exists for the encouragement of marriages among the poor who live together without being married or who have illegitimate children. They provide for their people all necessary papers, and even suitable clothing.

JAMES R. DANFORTH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Liege, April 27, 1892.

[Inclosure (translation) in Consul Danforth's report.]

BELGIAN MENDICITY AND VAGRANCY LAW.

[Enacted November, 1891. In force January, 1892.]

ARTICLE 1. For the repression of vagrancy and begging, the Government will organize institutions of correction under the name of poorhouses, asylums, and schools of charity.

ART. 2. The institutions of correction mentioned in the preceding article are exclusively used for the confinement of individuals whom the judicial authority has put at the disposal of the Government to be shut up in a workhouse.

The asylums mentioned in the same article are exclusively devoted to the confinement of individuals the judicial authorities put at the disposal of the Government to be confined in an asylum and individuals whose confinement in an asylum is requested by the authority of the commune.

The schools of charity are devoted to persons who are under 18 years of age and have been put by judicial authority at the disposal of the Government, or whose admission has been asked for by the authority of the commune.

ART. 3. The individuals over 18 years, whose admission in an asylum has been asked for by the authority of the commune, will be admitted there when they present themselves voluntarily provided with the copy of the decree of a board of the borgomaster and aldermen authorizing their admission.

ART. 4. When the admission in an asylum has been requested by a commune administration, the maintaining costs will be at the expense of the commune.

ART. 5. The individuals under 21 years confined in the poorhouses are entirely separated from the inmates above this age.

ART. 6. The able-bodied individuals confined in a poorhouse or in an asylum will be compelled to labor as prescribed in the establishment.

They are to receive daily wages, except when withdrawn for disciplinary measures, on which a reserve is made in order to form their leaving fund.

The minister of justice will determine the several categories in which the inmates will be classed, and according to the labor in which they are employed is determined the rate of the wages and the amount of the reserve.

The leaving fund is given one part in ready money, the other in clothes and tools.

ART. 7. The interior rules and the discipline of the establishments are regulated by royal decree.

The prisoners can be subjected to solitary confinement.

ART. 8. Each individual found in state of vagrancy will be arrested and arraigned before the police court.

Souteneurs of prostitutes are classed as vagrants.

However, the decision of the judge of peace concerning the *souteneurs* may be appealed during the period provided for by the code of criminal instruction.

ART. 9. Every individual found begging can be arrested and arraigned before the police court.

ART. 10. The adult and able-bodied foreigners not residing in Belgium, who are found begging or in a state of vagrancy, can be immediately brought back to the boundary.

ART. 11. By derogation of Article 3 of the law of May 1, 1849, the individuals arrested by virtue of the present law can be provisionally liberated by the public ministry or by the tribunals.

ART. 12. The judges of peace verify the identity, age, physical state, the mental state, and the kind of life of individuals arraigned before the tribunal of police for vagrancy as begging.

ART. 13. They put at the disposal of the Government, to be confined in a poorhouse for two years at least and seven years at most, the able-bodied individuals who, instead of obtaining from work their means of subsistence, speculate upon charity as professional beggars; also the individuals who by idleness, drunkenness, and immorality live in vagrancy and *souteneurs* of loose women.

ART. 14. The correctional courts can put at the disposal of the Government, to be confined in a poorhouse for a year at least and seven years at most, after having undergone their penalty, the vagrants and beggars whom they will condemn to a confinement of less than a year for an infraction provided for by the penal legislation.

ART. 15. The minister of justice may set free the confined individuals in a poorhouse whose confinement he judges unnecessary to prolong up to the term fixed by the tribunal.

ART. 16. The judges of peace may put at the disposal of the Government, to be confined in an asylum, the individuals found in vagrancy or begging, without any of the circumstances mentioned herebefore in Article 13.

ART. 17. The individuals confined in the asylums will be set free when their leaving fund has reached the amount fixed by the minister of justice for the several categories in which these inmates have been classed, and according to the trade they follow.

ART. 18. The individuals confined in an asylum can not in any case be kept there above a year against their will. The minister of justice may set free every individual confined in an asylum whose confinement he judges not to be any longer necessary.

ART. 19. The Government may at any time bring back to the boundaries the individuals of foreign nationality who have been put at his disposal to be confined in a poorhouse or asylum.

ART. 20. The board of directors of the asylum will present to the inmates, upon their leaving the establishment, a certificate mentioning their stay in the house, with attestation of good behavior, if this is the case.

ART. 21. The cost of maintaining individuals, confined in a poorhouse in consequence of a decision of the judicial authority, has to be borne up to a third part by the commune of their residence of assistance. The remainder has to be divided by halves between the state and the province.

It will be the same with the cost of maintaining able-bodied individuals confined in the asylums.

When an individual confined in a poorhouse or asylum in consequence of a decision of the judicial authority, has no residence of assistance in Belgium and his residence of assistance can not be found out, the maintaining costs to be borne by the commune of assistance, according to the preceding paragraph, will be borne by the province in which he has been arrested and arraigned before justice.

If *souteneurs* are concerned, these costs are borne by the commune on the territory of which he has speculated on debauchery.

ART. 22. The part falling to the commune in the maintaining costs of individuals confined in the poorhouses has to be borne by the treasury of the commune.

The part falling to the commune in the maintaining costs of able-bodied or invalid individuals confined in the asylums has to be borne by the almshouses and the boards of charity without prejudice to the subsidies of the commune in case of insufficiency of the resources of these institutions.

ART. 23. When an individual, put at the disposal of the Government to be confined in an asylum, is declared an invalid by the directors of the house, the maintaining costs, except the case of wounds or sickness occurring during the confinement, have to be borne as long as the incapacity for work remains, by the commune of his residence of assistance. The directors to give immediately notice of it to the commune of the residence of assistance.

ART. 24. When the individual arraigned before the tribunal of police in consequence of article 8 or article 9 of the present law is not fully 18 years of age the judge of peace, if the state of habitual begging or vagrancy is proved, will order that he may be put at the disposal of the Government to be confined, up to his being of age, in a school of charity.

ART. 25. When an individual who is not fully 16 years of age is arraigned before the police court for an infraction that the law punishes with a confinement less than eight days, a fine less than 26 francs or those two penalties combined, the judge of peace, even in the case of second offense, will not condemn him to the confinement nor the fine, but according to the nature and gravity of the act will dismiss him from the prosecution or put him at the disposal of the Government until his being of age.

The prosecution practiced according to articles 24 and 25 will not be mentioned in the information furnished afterwards respecting the prosecuted individuals.

ART. 26. The courts and tribunals may, when condemning to confinement an individual under 18 years of age, order him to remain at the disposal of the Government from the expiration of his penalty until his being of age.

The condemnation in this case will be executed within eight days from the date of condemnation.

ART. 27. The individuals put at the disposal of the Government in virtue of articles 25 and 26 of the present law, will be confined in a school of charity of the state.

ART. 28. If, in consequence of an error committed in the ascertaining of his age, an individual under 18 years has been put at the disposal of the government to be confined in a poorhouse, the transfer into a state school of charity will be ordered immediately by the minister of justice. The transfer into an asylum would equally be immediately ordered by the minister of justice if an individual being aged more than 18 had been put at the disposal of the Government to be confined in a state school of charity.

ART. 29. The individuals under 13 years at the date of their entering a state school of charity will stay, during the whole duration of their confinement, completely separated from the individuals entered at a more advanced age.

Equally the individuals entered into a state school of charity at the age of 13 years and less than 16 years will remain during the whole duration of their confinement separated from the individuals entered at a more advanced age.

ART. 30. The individuals put at the disposal of the Government according to articles 24, 25, and 26, of the present law, or in virtue of article 72, of the penal code, after having been confined in a State school of charity during six months without interruption, can be placed in apprenticeship with a farmer or an artisan; they can also, with the assent of their parents or tutors be placed in a public or private establishment for instruction or charity.

ART. 31. The individuals confined in the state school of charity can be returned, conditionally, to their parents or tutors, by decision of the minister of justice if they present sufficient guarantees of morality and are able to supervise conveniently their child or pupil.

ART. 32. The individuals returned conditionally to their parents or tutor, as p vided by the preceding article, can be reinstated up to their being of age, in a st school of charity by decision of the minister of justice, when it is acknowledged th their stay with their parents or their tutor has become dangerous to their moralit

They will, according to the rule established by article 29, of the present law, regarded to have been put at the disposal of the Government at the date at whi they were reinstated.

ART. 33. The individuals under 18 years, whose admission in a state school charity has been requested by the board of the burgomaster and aldermen of a co mune of the Kingdom and authorized by the minister of justice, have to be placed the state schools of charity under the same rule and upon the same conditions the individuals put at the disposal of the Government by judicial authority.

They remain at the disposal of the Government until their being of age and, cording to the rule established by article 29 of the present law, they are regar as having been put at the disposal of the Government at the date when their adm sion was asked for by the board of the burgomaster and aldermen. The board of burgomaster and aldermen must furnish, if necessary, proof of the consent of person exercising the right of the paternal power regarding the individual wh admission into a state school of charity has been asked for.

ART. 34. The cost of maintenance and education of the individuals placed in the st schools of charity are at the expense of the state for one-half and for the other h at the expense of the commune of their residence of assistance, if they have b put at the disposal of the Government by a decision of the judicial authority o the commune that has asked for their admission. When an individual confined i state school of charity, in virtue of a decision of the judicial authority, has no r dence of assistance in Belgium and when his residence can not be found out, the c for maintenance and education which would be at the expense of the commun assistance according to the preceding paragraph, have to be borne by the provi or the territory of which he has been arrested or arraigned before the tribunal.

ART. 35. The costs for maintenance and education of the children put at the posal of the Government in consequence of articles 25 and 26 have to be borne the state.

ART. 36. The King has to decide on the claims respecting the designation of commune to which fall the costs of maintaining the *souteneurs* in the poorhouses, the case provided in section 3, of article 21, of the present law, as well as the cla directed against the designation of the board of directors of the asylum in the designated in article 23.

These claims have to be addressed to the minister of justice, under penalty of feiture, within thirty days, beginning at the sending of the bill to settle or from decision of the Direction.

The claims of the provinces are formulated by the governors in the cases provi for in section 2, of article 21, and in section 2, of article 34, of the present law.

ART. 37. The King fixes annually the price for a day's maintenance in a s school of charity, in the asylums, and in the poorhouses.

ART. 38. The repayment of the costs made in accordance with the present la prosecuted at the expense of the persons maintained, or at the expense of those owe them food. It can also be prosecuted at the expense of those who are resp sible for the wounds or illness having necessitated the assistance.

The action is prescribed according to the dispositions of article 2277 of the c code.

ART. 39. The following persons are punished by a confinement of eight day three months:

(1) The person who compels a child under 16 years to beg habitually.

(2) The person who has furnished a child under 16 years or an invalid to a beg *who has* employed this child or invalid to solicit public charity.

In case of the second offense the penalty can be doubled.

The tribunals have the right to apply article 85 of the penal code.

ART. 40. Every three years the Government has to send to the legislative chambers a report on the execution of the present law.

ART. 41. The law of August 13, 1883; April 3, 1848; and March 6, 1866, are abolished.

ART. 42. The present law will enter into force January 1, 1892.

BELGIUM.

REPORT BY CONSUL ROOSEVELT OF BRUSSELS.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

One of the earliest efforts for the amelioration of the condition of the poor was according to a decree of October 15, 1793, ordering the organization of an aid association for the purpose of furnishing employment to workmen temporarily deprived of the means of existence. Work was to be let by contract to the lowest bidder, and wages were fixed at three-fourths the ordinary daily wages. The association was never organized, as it was found untenable, principally on account of the disastrous consequences which would have resulted to the public treasury, and especially on account of its effect upon the poor, who would have abandoned all interest and ambition in improving their condition through their own efforts. Besides, the means of repression were especially severe as regarded such unfortunates reduced to beggary through no fault of their own.

All persons convicted of begging money or bread on the streets or public highways, were considered mendicants. If they had a domicile, they were returned to their commune. If they were old offenders and without domicile they were sent to an almshouse or house of correction for one year. The penalty of transportation was applicable to beggars for a third offense and to vagrants arrested a second time.

On July 5, 1808, another law was put into execution prohibiting mendicity, and condemning offenders to an almshouse, in which were established workshops, where inmates were forced to work. The penal code, October 12, 1810, established vagrancy as an offense, and defined as such all persons having no given domicile, possessing no means of support, pursuing no trade or profession, and habitually leading an idle life. The fine was imprisonment from three to six months and police surveillance for a fixed term. Mendicity was punished by imprisonment and subsequent removal to an almshouse. Mendicity and vagrancy, attended by aggravating circumstances, such as threats, violence, carrying arms or instruments with which to commit robbery or other crimes, were punished with from two to five years' imprisonment. After the separation of Belgium from France, the law of July 5, 1808, as well as the rulings of the penal code, remained in force, but on account of the severity of the penalties imposed they were seldom enforced. The voluntary entering of mendicants and vagrants into almshouses which were opened to all resulted in oppressive expense

to the commune. Inmates were mixed together without distinction as to age or degree of perversity. Young men were corrupted from association with incorrigible offenders. In 1848 severe measures were inaugurated to correct many of the existing abuses, especially in the management of the various almshouses. Influence was exerted over youthful offenders to protect them from vice and inculcate principles of order and diligence. Reform schools were established where young beggars and vagrants were detained until they attained their eighteenth year. These schools, situated at Ruysselede and Beernem, still exist, and are now known as government charity schools, where boys are trained in various manual pursuits, particularly in agriculture, and girls in general house and needle work.

These schools have produced most excellent results as very few of the inmates, once free from control return to habits of vagrancy. In 1880, the Government established a branch school, thus affording means of separating the incorrigibly bad and vicious from those of less evil tendencies. As vagrancy and mendicity increased under the application of the law of 1848, a new law was adopted, March 6, 1866, wherein mendicity and vagrancy as offenses were clearly defined, and severe rules applied to able-bodied individuals given to idleness and vice. Arrest for mendicity was optional, for vagrancy imperative, as vagrancy was defined as a punishable offense, while mendicity was considered as such only when habitually practiced. Mayors were invested with the right of tolerating mendicity of children, the old, and the infirm. All able-bodied persons over 18 years of age, known to be beggars or vagrants were subject to arrest, and were sentenced by a justice of the peace to fifteen days' imprisonment and to the disposal of the Government for a term not exceeding six months. Infirm persons known to be vagrants, or addicted to mendicity, could be arrested, but not sentenced to prison, and placed at the disposal of the Government for a term not less than fifteen days nor exceeding two years. Youthful offenders were sentenced to the reform school, and there detained until they reached the age of 21. In virtue of this law, nearly all communal almshouses were suppressed and instead a large central establishment was organized by the Government in Flanders for the reception of all able-bodied mendicants and vagrants over 18 years of age. June 8, 1867, the penal code was revised and the penalties for begging and vagrancy reduced, excepting in aggravated cases, such as pretended afflictions, begging from door to door, begging in gangs, carrying arms, acts of violence, etc. In view of the state of affairs existing under this law, the decree of November 29, 1891, for the suppression of mendicity and vagrancy was put into operation and is as follows:

(1) Institutions under Government control known as almshouses, houses of refuge, reform and charity schools.

(2) All persons found in a state of vagrancy to be arrested and taken before the police court; individuals supported by lewd women to be classed as vagrants.

(3) *All persons* found begging to be arrested and taken before the police court.

(4) A justice of the peace has the power to place at the disposition of the Government: (a) to be committed to an almshouse, for a term of from two to seven years, individuals who, instead of obtaining their means of existence through work, exploit public charity, idlers, drunkards, disorderly characters living in vagrancy, and those deriving their support from lewd women; (b) individuals living in vagrancy or detected begging without any of the before-mentioned conditions to be sent to a house of refuge.

(5) Individuals sentenced for other offenses (theft and swindling) to be committed to an almshouse, and subject, after expiration of sentence, to a term of one to seven years.

(6) Before the term is fixed by a justice of peace, the minister of justice may authorize the liberation of such beggars and vagrants giving proof of honest desire to reform.

(7) Able-bodied persons confined in an almshouse or house of refuge, are compelled to perform prescribed labor, for which they receive a fixed daily wage, a percentage of which is deducted to form a purse which is given to the prisoner when discharged. The minister of justice decides, according to the category in which the inmate is inscribed, and the work performed, the amount to be paid and deducted. The sum deducted is given to the discharged inmate partly in money, clothing, and in tools.

(8) Youthful offenders less than 18 years of age, detected in mendicity or vagrancy, to be sent to the Government reform school, to be there detained until they attain their majority. After six months' detention they can be placed at the authorization of Government as apprentices or restored to their parents under guarantee. If the parents are indifferent, neglectful, or careless the child is returned to the reformatory.

(9) Expenses are shared by the state, province, and commune.

In virtue of the law of November 27, 1891, simple mendicity and vagrancy are no longer considered as crimes and punished by imprisonment. To prevent commital of crimes, vicious mendicants and vagrants may be imprisoned. Those not thoroughly bad and depraved are sent to a house of refuge, an institution closely resembling our charity asylums. Under this law persons and inmates of the various Government institutions are confined in separate quarters according to age, degree of perversity, etc.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

In each commune there is an institution officially called bureau de bienfaisance, whose special mission is the distribution of alms directly at the homes of the needy. This charity is the proceeds of annual gifts, collections, incomes from estates, and funds bequeathed to the poor. The organization is essentially communal or local. In communes of more than 3,000 inhabitants the bureau de bienfaisance is assisted by the committee of charities, an organization of nine members appointed by the burgomaster and aldermen from a list of names submitted by the general council, and who give their service gratuitously. In the city of Brussels there are also salaried agents, known as inspectors, attached to each committee, whose duty consists in verifying demands for assistance, exercising an interested supervision over the poor, reporting

cases of distress requiring immediate help, and looking after the indigent sick, that they receive regular medicial attention. Assistance is only extended to persons temporarily incapacitated from work, the old, infirm, orphans, and abandoned children.

Besides the committee of charity there are numerous private associations in this city devoted to the amelioration of the condition of the poor. Some distribute aid directly at domiciles; others have established workshops, labor exchanges, and employment bureaus for unemployed workmen. One association is devoted to relieving the distress of honest but unfortunate persons ashamed to beg. Others have founded orphan asylums or homes for young girls. All of these associations are free, and are not submitted to any inspection or control by the authorities. The committees of charity are instructed to carefully investigate demands for assistance and to exercise prudence in granting aid, so as to prevent, by careless attention and unwise refusal, forcing the poor to seek aid by mendicity. In many cases it was discovered that certain indigent families considered public charity as an inheritance. They calculated the value of periodical assistance as so much profit. They were indifferent and indolent, and made no effort to better their condition. Many families weekly received bread and a few pounds of coal. The system was found to be pernicious, and increased instead of relieving distress and diminishing pauperism. All possible means are exerted to inspire habits of order and industry, and to this end all persons confined in Government institutions are forced to work. It must be acknowledged, however, that results are not always satisfactory, it being an almost hopeless task to reform the depraved class constituting the majority of the inmates.

Especial attention is given to the reformation of youthful offenders, who are valuable factors in causing to disappear what may be termed perpetual mendicity in certain families. While habits of frugality have increased among the poorer classes, especially among those trained in reform schools, it is also true that the most frequent cause of relapse to mendicity and vagrancy, and subsequent return to an almshouse, is intemperance. This is not astonishing when one considers the vast number of low grogshops flourishing in the poorer quarters of the city. It is almost impossible to state the effects of indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities, as private associations are absolutely free and are not required to render any account of their actions or dispensations to the public authorities. The object of the State in making provinces and communes share in the expense of caring for mendicants and vagrants is to incite vigilance in causing mendicity and vagrancy to disappear, and thereby decrease expenses. Communes are expected to exercise watchfulness and discernment and great care in protecting the unfortunate poor from obligatory mendicity or the poorhouse.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

There is no absolute system of distribution of public and private charities having for object the elevation of recipients. Under public administration of charity, besides hospitals, asylums, almshouses, etc., assistance rendered at homes is for the purpose of inspiring selfrespect and self-help in the recipient. Any person in positive want may address the committee of charities, who immediately investigate the case and decide the nature of the aid to be rendered. As mentioned before, the committee is composed of citizens of position and undoubted respectability, who are required to exercise dignity and gentleness in their dealings with the poor, who are influenced by their advice and charitable intervention.

In many of the private associations devoted to the distribution of alms at domicils the duty of investigation and delivery of help is made by the members. The contact of the poor with persons of position and education has produced most beneficial results. Despite the great amount of money and labor expended yearly in this city to ameliorate the condition of the poor the problem still remains a perplexing one, the successful untangling of which is proposed through two channels—education and improved homes. Education is the first step toward lifting from the slums the masses from whence beggars and vagrants spring. Improved homes, with agreeable surroundings, is the needful and permanent foundation of the structure of reclamation. In these old countries hurry and progress are unknown, and the work of demolishing old quarters, pulling down rickety hovels moves slowly, principally, however, on account of the limited means at the disposition of the communes. In this city the work has progressed more rapidly, and many of the oldest and most squalid quarters have been converted into wide, clean thoroughfares, possessing well-constructed buildings, containing comfortable quarters at moderate rents.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

No efforts have been made in Belgium to prevent the intermarriage of paupers. The same regulations are applied to rich and poor without distinction. Marriage can not be contracted before the age of 18 for males, and 15 for females. A son under 25 years of age, and a daughter under 21 can not contract marriage without the consent of their parent or parents. In case of death of parents, the consent of the grandfather is necessary. After the ages of 25 and 21 years, the consent of parent or parents, grandfather, or family adviser, should, in case of refusal, be obtained by means of an act of respect executed before a notary. The marriage is preceded by two publications made in the communes where the contracting parties reside, and the marriage must be celebrated publicly before the civil officer of the commune where the marriage takes place.

Marriage is prohibited between descendants in direct line, as brother and sister, uncle and niece, or aunt and nephew.

Far from making restrictions to these rules as regard the poor, the Government, to encourage marriage among this class, and to prevent the continuance of unlawful cohabitation, has recently made simplifications in celebrating marriage, and in the production of the necessary papers for contracting marriage.

GEO. W. ROOSEVELT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Brussels, June 30, 1892.

ANTWERP.

REPORT BY CONSUL LINCOLN.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

The local police authorities are charged with the duty of apprehending all persons found begging or in a state of vagrancy. Persons arrested for these causes are summoned before a police tribunal and are subject to a sentence of confinement of from two to seven years according to the character of the offense, their capacity to work, etc., in all cases of able-bodied persons fit to work and who apparently prefer a life of vagabondage, etc.

The places of confinement are known as benevolent agricultural colonies, two of which for men are located in the province of Antwerp.

All persons sent to these institutions are compelled to do a certain amount of work, dependent in a measure upon their physical capacity, under the surveillance of a military guard.

These institutions are similar to the workhouses of the United States.

A person released from one of these colonies receives a discharge, and is obliged to report to the police authorities of his original place of residence and is subject to their supervision.

"Tramps" are not often converted from their ways, and cases are known where men have passed years at one of these institutions, where they are well fed and clad.

The expenses of these colonies are paid out of the communal and provincial funds, although the institutions themselves are under the supervision of the State. The cost of support of each able-bodied vagrant is estimated at about 13 cents per day; for the crippled and others unable to work, 17 cents per day.

The province of Antwerp paid for the support of vagrants in these institutions as follows:

	Francs.
1880	40,809.54
1885	66,270.85
1889	85,163.87

Other persons convicted of begging, vagrancy, etc., who may be incapacitated for work, or simple victims of misfortune, are restrained in a so-called "house of refuge," where the limit of detention can not exceed one year.

Persons under the age of 18 years are sent to a benevolent school until they attain majority. At any time the Minister of Justice has the power of releasing any individual before the expiration of the time fixed by the sentence of confinement in cases where he thinks longer detention useless. Foreigners are sent out of the country.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

Public charities are controlled by different administrations, so called, or boards, the members or directors of which are appointed by the common council for a term of four years.

These persons are chosen from among the wealthiest class of citizens, and render their services gratuitously.

The "Administration des Hospices" controls the hospitals, orphan asylums, homes for the aged, asylums for the deaf and dumb, blind, and the insane.

The administration, or board, has its own budget of ways and means, which is submitted to and passed upon by the common council. This board manages the property owned by it, a great proportion of which has been donated in sums of money, real estate, and buildings. These donations are termed foundations, and carry the name of the giver.

Some of the foregoing are centuries old. The revenues derived from the above are supposed to be applied exclusively to the purpose designated by their founders, but in some instances they have been so large that the administration has been allowed to apply them in part to other objects coming under their supervision.

The administration de la bienfaisance, or board of public charities, the directors of which are also appointed for a term of four years by the common council, has under its control the dispensation of alms to the poor of the city.

The number of persons receiving aid from this board, either in money, provisions, clothing, bedding, or medicine, is about 25,000, and in consequence of the large number the directors have as assistants "visitors of the poor," who are also unpaid.

The affairs of each ward or section of the city are administered by a director and visitors, who meet every week and obtain from the central administration the supplies necessary for distribution in their respective districts.

The board of public charities has also the supervision of the children abandoned by their parents.

These little ones are either cared for in an asylum specially instituted for that purpose, or they are sent out into the country to be cared for by farmers at a stipulated rate per day.

This system of boarding children in the country has met with considerable success, and very little abuse has been reported.

The children of all persons assisted by the city are compelled to attend the city school on attaining a proper age until they reach the age of 12; after that they are at liberty to attend the evening schools.

Parents who neglect to send their children to the public city schools are refused assistance from this board. Medical services are rendered free of all charges to the poor in sickness of any kind by doctors regularly appointed and salaried, and dwelling in the different sections of the city.

Medicines are also delivered free to all those receiving assistance from the authorities. Cases of confinement are attended to by the doctors of the poor or by regularly certificated midwives who receive a stipulated fee for each delivery and the subsequent care of the confined. All assistance rendered, either in money, provisions, clothing, etc., is entered on books kept by the administration. Each person assisted has also his or her book, in which is entered whatever help is afforded and the time of its bestowal.

This serves as a check upon the indiscriminate bestowal of aid. The administration of the loan office consists of a board of five directors, also appointed by the common council for a term of four years, two of whom represent respectively the "Administration des Hospices" and the board of charities.

Subject to the control of the city authorities they are authorized to loan money on pledges of personal property of nearly every description at a fixed rate of interest which is at present 7 per cent.

This institution was created by a royal decree but unendowed. The capital it works with was loaned to it by the "Administration des Hospices" at 5 per cent, but the profits of its operations have been such that at present it has an independent fund of its own, amounting to $220,000. When its accumulations reach the sum of $240,000, the profits of its operations are to be divided equally between the "Administration des Hospices" and the board of charities.

All persons sentenced to one of the colonies before mentioned are interrogated by the director of the institution as to the causes leading to their sentences, their antecedents, trade, occupation, or profession, whether married or single, etc. Their answers are compared with the report of the judicial proceedings. If the director feels justified in entertaining a hope of a prisoner's redemption and of his going to work in a short time he requests an immediate release from the minister of justice. All prisoners are assigned to sections in accordance with the necessities of each case.

Invalids are divided into three sections:

(*a*) Invalids of bad moral character, and all those whose previous conduct justifies a menace to the welfare of others.

(*b*) The crippled and old, unable to support themselves, but still able to do a certain amount of work.

(*c*) The infirm, mentally weak, and others absolutely unable to perform any kind of labor.

The able-bodied prisoners are distributed in four sections:

The first is composed of the immoral, rebellious, and generally vicious, contact with whom might be productive of evil influences. These are isolated in a quarter where they have their workshops, and are constantly under the eyes of a keeper. Each person sleeps by himself in a closed alcove.

The second section is made up of those who are under the surveillance of the police, those who have been reconvicted, and all those of bad conduct.

The third section embraces those who have been previously sentenced, but who behave themselves well.

To the fourth section are assigned all cases of first offense when the culprit has no antecedent record of crime, and has committed no offense more serious than an infraction of police regulations.

The good or bad conduct of the prisoners furnishes the occasion of their transfer from one section to another. Intercourse of any kind between the different sections is prohibited. Each section is provided with its own workshop, sleeping accommodations, yards for exercise, and heaters.

Work is compulsory for all except those pronounced to be incapable of it by the physicians of the institution.

Those incapable of work are separated into divisions, according to age; those of the first section are subjected to solitary confinement.

Those who work are paid according to what they accomplish, at fixed rates, a certain proportion of the wages earned by them being paid them in a sort of fictitious currency, by means of which they are enabled to buy certain articles of necessity supplied by the establishment.

The balance is paid to them in cash at the time of discharge, that they may have some means for support on leaving the institution.

The prisoner in these houses is given a discharge as soon as the sum he has earned reaches a certain minimum of wages fixed by the minister of justice. The workshops of the establishment offer an opportunity to all having a trade to perfect themselves, and to those having none the opportunity of learning one and thereby provide themselves with means of support on leaving the institution. The institutions are provided with libraries, which are opened to the convict on Sundays and feast days.

Chaplains are also attached to the establishments who, besides offering the consolation of religion, endeavor to better the moral condition of its inmates.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

Up to the present time no measures have been taken by the authorities to prevent intermarriage among individuals composing the classes referred to. There are, however, separate institutions for men and women.

GEO. F. LINCOLN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Antwerp, July 26, 1892.

GHENT.

REPORT BY CONSUL OSBORNE.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

There is practically no control exercised over vagrants. The police frequently visit the low tenement and lodging houses. With a view to control the movements of foreign anarchists and like characters severe orders have just been issued at this writing (April 10) to the police throughout Belgium to exercise more constant surveillance over strangers stopping in lodging houses.

DISPENSING ALMS.

Alms are distributed through the official medium of the bureau de bienfaisance (bureau of charity) under municipal control. It is destined to aid as much as possible the poor who are not in the hospitals. The alms which it distributes are derived chiefly from the revenues from its property, but in case there is a lack of funds the town comes to its assistance. This was the case in the severe winter of 1890–'91. The assistance rendered is of two kinds, "ordinary" and "extraordinary," the former being that given regularly every week or month, the latter that accorded in certain deserving cases, such as during the illness of the head and support of a family. Of course the assistance is discontinued as soon as the person is able to resume work. Foreigners as well as Belgians are eligible to the benefits of the bureau. The method of operation is briefly as follows: The applicant for charity first secures from the commissaire of police of the district where he resides a certificate showing his residence. This he must present at the bureau de bienfaisance, which sends one of its employés to the home of the indigent person to verify the justice of his claims for assistance. If it is found to be a worthy case the amount to be given weekly or monthly is fixed and paid to the applicant generally by the maitre des pauvres of his district. These "masters of the poor" are individuals named by the bureau to represent it and serve without recompense.

Besides the official bureau de bienfaisance there are charitable societies in which the methods of dispensing alms are similar to that described above except that no certificate from the police commissary is required. The principal ones are the "*Sans nom non sans cœur*," which is very popular, and the society St. Vincent de Paul, under Catholic management. On the occasion of the death of a member of a wealthy family it is very common for the family to make money gifts in the name of the deceased to one or more of these societies.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

Persons found begging, or even in a state of vagabondage, are arrested and taken before the police tribunal. Foreigners are conducted to the nearest frontier and expelled from the country. The justice of the peace verifies the identity, age, physical condition, etc., of the individuals arrested, and places them at the disposition of the Government. If found to be able-bodied persons, who prefer to exist on public charity rather than work, they are confined in a depot de mendicité for a period of at least two years, and not more than seven years. The minister of justice may pardon them at any time, in case he deems it useless to detain them the fixed time. The authorities of any commune may also confine beggars and vagabonds in a maison de refuge (house of refuge), which is an institution of the same character as the depot de mendicité, except that the inmates can not be detained longer than one year against their own will. Both these correctional institutions are limited to able-bodied men over 18 years of age. For those under that age the government has established charity schools. The inmates who are sent to these schools in the character of culprits are separated according to age into three classes—those less than 13 years of age; those from 13 to 16 years, and those from 16 to 18 years. Those under 16 years may, after a detention of six months, be apprenticed to a farmer or artisan, or be placed in a public or private school, providing the consent of the parents or tutor is obtained. In case their parents are considered competent to care for them, they may be returned conditionally to their parents, and, if subsequently their conduct is not satisfactory, they may be reconfined. Of course this oftener happens in the case of incorrigible children than in the question under discussion. However, a large number of beggar boys are sent to these institutions. In the depots de mendicité those less than 21 years of age are separated from those above that age. All the able-bodied inmates are assigned to work in the establishment. For this they receive daily wages, subject to deprivation for some days as punishment. The authorities of the institution also retain from each man's daily wages a small sum, which is set aside for his masse de sortie or discharge fund, which is paid him on leaving the establishment, half in money and half in clothes and tools. Such are the organized efforts that are made to convert beggars and tramps to good members of society. A fair measure of success has *attended* these efforts.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

I know of no indiscriminate dispensation of public or private charities in Ghent. The population of the city is only 150,208, of which about 45,000 are poor working people. In times of severe winter, business stagnation, strikes, etc., there is great distress and the charity is inadequate; however, that administered through the channels of the official bureau de bienfaisance and of the three or four most prominent societies of charity, to the best of my knowledge and belief, is distributed to those who are deserving of assistance. But I may say that the effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities are the same here as in the United States, viz, to enervate the energies of the recipients, to increase the number of beggars, and to bring into discredit the sanctity of charity.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEM.

The best system of distribution of public and private charities has proved to be that which is preceded by a careful and impartial examination and verification (if possible at the homes of the applicants) of the claims for assistance.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

There are no existing restraints on the intermarriage of paupers.

JOHN B. OSBORNE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Ghent, April 11, 1892.

DENMARK.

REPORT BY CONSUL RYDER, OF COPENHAGEN.

Several decrees have been issued from time to time during the present century in relation to the laws for the relief of the poor for the kingdom at large. It will be sufficient, however, to confine myself to the regulations in force in this metropolis, where the organization is more perfect than in the provincial towns, owing to the large annual revenue at its disposal derived from the municipal taxes, as well as from income accruing from city property and other sources. This administration, since the year 1857, has been conducted by a board of magistrates, consisting of nine members, among whom are four borgomasters, who are life functionaries, and a city council of thirty-six members elected by the citizens. The means for working these poor laws are raised not by a special poor rate, but the expenses are defrayed out of the yearly revenues. The work of the administration for the relief of

the poor residing in the metropolis is subdivided into (1) outdoor relief assorting under the second bureau, and (2) indoor relief assorting under the first bureau. The outdoor relief is attended to by fourteen district relieving officers and twenty-eight poor-law medical officers, all of these being salaried. The relief administered may consist either of (1) weekly allowance of bread; (2) money given either at intervals or once for all for a certain definite purpose; (3) fuel; (4) clothing; (5) medical attendance at home with appliances; (6) burials. The recipients of this relief belong to two classes: (*a*) Those who receive permanent alms, their condition making it probable they will need it perpetually; and (*b*) such who may need assistance for a short period only. This relief, through the careful discrimination of the relieving officers, can be said to be confined to the deserving class who strive to keep up their family home and to be spared the separation attending to indoor relief; and it is frequently found that, thanks to this outdoor aid, it has been the means of leading to further exertions on their part toward their own self-support. As regards the subdivision of indoor relief, it has been a principal object with the board of guardians since the latest reorganization of the poor laws in 1872, to make a clear distinction between the worthy and the unworthy poor, so that those two classes should be completely separated by being assigned to different buildings and subject to different disciplinary regulations. As a matter of course this reform, necessitating the erection of large and costly buildings, could only be effected by degrees. So much has, however, been accomplished so far that the whole presents even now a fairly complete shape. Thus there are at present two large asylums for the reception of the worthy poor of either sex, who from old age, sickness, or other causes are entirely unable to provide for themselves, and who are here very comfortably cared for and fed.

Again, there is an establishment for the worthy poor of either sex who, from slackness in the labor demand or other causes, are temporarily unable to support themselves. There the inmates are employed in workshops in the house or at other work for the establishment, but never outside of the premises; and from their earnings a certain fixed amount is retained and saved up for them so they may have a sum at their disposal on leaving. With the pauper children it has nowadays almost become a fixed principle of the guardians to board the orphan children under their charge with private families in the rural districts; in 1889, 532 children having been thus boarded out. These children, apart from being under the supervision of the local guardians, are also under direct control from the metropolis, officials of the municipality yearly making the circuit of the country to inspect every pauper child thus boarded out. When a child, educated under this control, reaches its fourteenth year it, as a rule, leaves school and is then bound apprentice to some trade or procured employment as domestic, and these children

remain under the supervision of the poor-laws administration until the reach their eighteenth year.

Turning next to the unsatisfactory class of unworthy poor, namel the professional mendicants, vagrants, tramps, etc.: These, as befo mentioned, may not be consigned to the institutions for the worth poor, but are assigned to institutions set apart for their class. The i mates are: (1) The permanent, on account of old age or premature d crepitude from the effects of an ill-spent life; (2) able-bodied indivi uals seeking temporary relief, or such as may be found by the poli wandering about the streets of the metropolis, homeless and witho means of subsistence; (3) individuals convicted of mendicancy, who a sent by the police magistrate to this institution to serve out such term imprisonment with compulsory labor as has been awarded them by t court. These criminals are either put to work under the contracto for the street-cleaning of the metropolis or in breaking stones for t repair of the roads, picking oakum, or such other work as may be o dered by the superintendent, a certain portion of the earned wages b ing set aside for both these classes, so that they may not be devoid all means when they leave the establishment.

Unfortunately, it must be said that with this vagrant class little ca be done toward the elevation of self-respect and reclaiming them fro their evil habits. The wandering, unfettered style of life which the have so long been following, combined with too frequent addictedne to drink, exercises so baneful an influence that the pursuits of a sob life and regular course of employment seem, after a time, not only become irksome to them, but positively unbearable. Philanthropic i dividuals have frequently made endeavors, by procuring steady emplo ment and giving good advice, to bring them back as useful members the community, and happily these charitable exertions have at tim been crowned with successful results; but the great majority, sad say, are to be found, after a short probation, again stealing away their former erratic course of existence.

Tabular returns for the year 1889 over the number of persons in r ceipt of poor relief in this metropolis give the same as follows, namel 6,822 individuals with outdoor and 3,020 with indoor relief, makin together 9,842, or about 3 per cent of the population of the city. Accor ing to the laws of this country no male pauper who has been in recei of poor relief within the last five years, and has not refunded the co of the same, is allowed to enter into matrimony without the previo consent of the board of guardians. In former years this law was al applicable to the female sex; but by the decree of 29th December, 185 it was confined to the male sex. It can scarcely be said that any po tive materials are at hand for enabling a correct judgment to be form on the working of this regulation; so much the more as there is a reason to believe that in many of the communes the boards of gua dians have shown considerable liberality on this point in all such cas

where it was not too evident that the marriage would operate in too great degree against their own interests; as, for example, where a man who in the last five years had been in receipt of poor relief was desirous of entering into matrimony with a foreigner having one or more illegitimate children.

In addition to these public institutions for the poor, there are many philanthropic and private charitable institutes, having various objects in view, largely for the benefit of children, but also for improving the circumstances of well-educated persons of either sex who are not well off; or convalescent homes and other benevolent objects; these being chiefly supported by the gifts of large legacies, many of which institutions are also placed under the management of the poor law board of guardians, who act as trustees for carrying out the directions of the testators.

There is one richly endowed institute for helpless and deserted girls, particularly of the lower classes, founded in 1874 by the testamentary bequest of Countess Danne, the morganatic wife of King Frederic VII. The children, about 400 in number, are admitted from 2 to 4 years of age, and receive board and education, and are specially educated for domestic service. Apart from extensive buildings and large landed estate, this institute has a funded capital of near 5,000,000 kroners.

HENRY B. RYDER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Copenhagen, May 17, 1892.

FRANCE.

SEINE—INFERIEURE.

REPORT BY CONSUL WILLIAMS, OF ROUEN.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

The only control ever exercised upon vagrants has been by classification of all paupers as resident and nonresident. Vagrancy is treated as a criminal offense, and prison falls to the lot of the confirmed "tramp" who lingers by the wayside. There are no accommodations for the tramp other than in a very limited space at the police stations. Almshouses are unknown; a few apartments for the old, feeble, and disabled are attached to the hospitals.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

Resident paupers receive special cards and are looked after by the municipalities, and are thus entitled to medical attendance and to partake of distributions of food, fuel, clothing, and money on certain fixed

days under supervision of town officials. A special proportion of publi taxes and gifts from charitable people generally suffice to support th known paupers of each commune. The tramps, country beggars, etc. have no cards, and are obliged to appear personally before the officers o the municipality to obtain assistance, which is always granted very re luctantly. The private charities afford "night homes and shelters," where anyone can rest three nights and receive bread and coffee in th morning.

This city affords two such homes, so that a tramp can enjoy six day lodging and partial board, or an unfortunate can employ that length o time in seeking employment.

There are medical dispensaries provided in the town, where vaccina tions, medical advice, and medicines are given to the poor. Hospita attendance and medical visits are granted the resident poor.

There is a bureau of charities and a division of the cities into dis tricts for dispensing food, clothing, fuel, medical assistance, and smal sums of money to resident poor.

In Boulogne-sur-Mer alms are distributed to some extent by mean of counters, good for so much food or clothing at certain shops, and i winter there are several establishments where soup, bread, and vege tables are provided very cheaply. These counters are worth 2 cent each, and are distributed by charitable persons. In addition to thi bureau of benevolence, which gives bread and coal to necessitou families, there is a place where bread is given to all applicants on Sun day morning.

A few lodging orders are sometimes given to poor travelers.

Their are 6 crèches, "infants homes," in Rouen, several in Calais, and in the manufacturing and commercial cities of this district, where the children of working people can be left from morning till night they are looked after and fed in comfortable rooms. These institution are useful and enable the parents to earn wages and the elder children to attend school or work. The charge of 3 cents per day is made, which relieves the parents from being considered as paupers. The societie are innumerable, and their appeals to the charitable at Rouen are constant.

Poor children attending the public schools are provided with cloth ing and their midday meal, otherwise it would be impossible for many to attend.

The tramp has been recently acknowledged by the authorities to be entitled to a certain amount of hospitality which has been hitherto con fined to food, and in some cases to lodgings in a barn. The farmer have not dared to refuse the shelter of their stables for fear of reprisals As a consequence many fires have occurred, the result of carelessness o maliciousness. The communes have requested the préfet of this depart ment to provide a lodging place for this class of paupers. The préfet requested the departmental architect to prepare a model for a chea

lodging place for tramps. In answer to this requisition two models were presented for approval yesterday, the one in wood, the other in brick.

One construction is quadrangular, about 10 feet high, in brick laid in cement and confined by metal girders, with a steep roof of zinc. The door is of wood, with a sliding wicket for observation. The furniture consists of a camp bed, upon which 3 persons can stretch themselves out, a bench and a shelf for packages and clothing. Two small panes of glass furnish light. This construction costs 200 to 250 francs in brick and less in wood. It seems to please the authorities, but it remains to be seen whether it will meet the approval of the class of travelers for whom it is intended.

The classification of the poor by the board of charities is permanent, temporary, or accidental.

Permanent help is granted for a year, subject to renewal on application for a longer period. Temporary aid for a specified time, subject to extension. Accidental assistance for an emergency, and for once only.

For the year 1889 2,415 old and incurables were assisted at the poor wards attached to the hospitals of Rouen. In addition, 16,133 sick and 2,951 persons were assisted by the board of charities at a cost of 1,231,864.64 francs. In 1887 1,228,162.44 francs were expended in the same way.

The police of country and city keep a sharp eye upon tramps, and as the latter do not care to work upon the roads without pay, they stand in awe of the police. Many a good day's work on roads has been performed by tramps; nevertheless fires, thefts, murders, and other crimes are of frequent occurrence, which clearly indicates the line of march of the tramp. Begging in the streets, dwellings, or public buildings is absolutely forbidden in France, but the law is not always strictly enforced, and some old and disabled beggars enjoy the favor of the board of charities, and are not observed by the police when they beg.

This mode of self support seems to be gaining in favor in many parts of the country. This applies to resident paupers. When the nonresident paupers are caught begging, especially if troublesome, drunk, or in numbers, they are summarily dealt with by the police. The articles 274, 275, and 276 of the civil code, punish the resident pauper found begging with one to three months, while the nonresident pauper is punished for the same offense with from three months to two years' imprisonment and the same term of police surveillance.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

Efforts of various kinds have been made and are still being made to change the condition of vagrants and tramps into that of self supporting members of society. From Charlemagne to the present Republic one can follow in the archives the persevering efforts made by monarchs,

magistrates, and officials to solve the problem. Some advocated harsh measures, prison, torture, and even death; others paternal ways, such as labor refuges, agricultural colonies, or national labor establishments, and bureaus for the free distribution of tools, seeds, etc., to paupers. Under Napoleon I, fifty-seven large workhouses, capable of sheltering 20,000 vagrants, were thrown open; six years later twenty-four of them were closed for want of occupants.

France has at different times wanted laborers for India, Africa, West Indies, and parts of South America; no vagrants would book for these expeditions, and if some started, it was only to continue abroad their traffic of charity.

There have been efforts made in some French cities to assist the poor by providing labor for those thrown out of work temporarily and so remunerating them that they could tide over some temporary misfortune which had thrown them out of employment; such institutions have been reported as successful at Marseilles and Havre, and funds have been subscribed to prepare a similar workhouse at Rouen.

Every year new efforts are made and new societies formed for the dispensations of charities. The consular agent at Calais, whose character and position render him a good and impartial judge of the best system of distribution of public and private charities, says that—

I pay taxes to the Government, part of which comes to my city for the poor fund. I am also a member of thirty-one different charitable associations which cost me about 800 francs annually, and I pay out to paupers, vagrants, and others calling at my door for assistance probably as much more. The sum spent in public and private charities in France is enormous, and I almost fear that it induces people to choose that line of business rather than force their way by honest labor.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

As to the best system for the distribution of alms, the consular agent at Calais says:

Up to the present time I do not remember ever to have seen a confirmed pauper become a good member of society. That class of people seem to have a disgust for any kind of work. They prefer their half-wild existence, full of discomfort and misery, to the peaceful life of the workmen. The fear of punishment alone holds them in check, and if police and gendarmes neglected their duties vagrancy would proportionally increase. The strict observance of the laws and regulations is the only possible way to control or reduce this plague.

When the Calais harbor was enlarged many hands were wanted. I arranged with some friends to supply "gratis" with tools all of the vagrants seeking labor. What a disappointment we had! All of the tools were sold the very same day, and the vagrants left the town. That is an evidence of the absolute refusal the vagrants oppose to people wanting to help them out of misery.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

Marriage is not usual among vagrants. They are generally single. When men and women live and travel together with children, their *object is to* obtain more pity and collect more money, which they spend

without giving much to the support of the children. So far from preventing marriage between paupers, there are societies at Boulogne-sur-mer, Rouen, and elsewhere to encourage and assist such nuptials. The societies pay the expenses and give some pecuniary assistance to the married couples.

CHAS. P. WILLIAMS,
Consul.

ROUEN, FRANCE, *May 10, 1892.*

COGNAC.

REPORT BY CONSUL PRESTON.

That class of vagrants generally designated "tramps" are controlled and regulated by the police of the various cities; no one can beg without permission. He must have a book to show or he is liable to arrest.

The methods employed for the distribution of alms are generally the giving out of bread, beans, soup tickets, coal, and wood at the city hall; every family proving their poverty and necessities can come each Monday and receive what they actually need, their names being put on the list of assisted poor.

The only efforts being made for the punishment or suppression of begging are those recited above.

There is no indiscriminate dispensation of public or private charity unless it is that one occasionally gives a penny to a beggar in the street or at the church doors; all is regulated by law. Public charity at the city hall; and as for private charity, there is in every town a "Society of Saint Vincent de Paul for the support of the poor." Funds are collected from the rich and better classes, and a committee of said society visit the poor at their homes, find out who are deserving, and relieve them.

The system described seems to have worked well in France for the last 500 years.

No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriages of paupers; the marriage laws of France are precise and well known; they apply equally to the poor as to the rich.

WILLIAM S. PRESTON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cognac, April 12, 1892.

MARSEILLES.

REPORT BY CONSUL TRAIL.

DISPENSING ALMS.

There do not appear to be any features in the dispensing of the public charities of Marseilles that would be of service to the representatives of the associated charities of American cities. As far as my observation goes, very few tramps are met with in Marseilles. The beggars are permanent fixtures of the city. Men, women, and children in every stage of misery and disease are freely permitted to solicit alms in the streets and at the church doors. There is not much house-to-house begging, as the beggars have a regular fixed place where they are to be found every day. The deformed, the blind, and the crippled are all alike exposed in the streets.

Objectionable as this system is, it yet permits of a great amount of unostentatious charity—of the poor giving to the poor. Persons who would not put their names down on a subscription list for a fixed sum for a specific charity, give yearly to the pitiable and persistent beggar quite a sum in the way of a sou or two a day.

The regular public charities are mainly supported by lotteries, but as this method of raising funds is condemned in the United States, it is needless to enlarge on it here.

According to the French penal code, the fact of being a tramp or vagabond is considered as a misdemeanor, and tramps so convicted are punished with a sentence of from three to six months' imprisonment, and after having undergone this sentence they are subjected to supervision of the police for a period varying from five to ten years.

Tramps, however, who are under age are not sentenced to imprisonment upon conviction, but are subjected to police supervision till they are 21 years of age, unless they engage in either the army or the navy before the attainment of their majority.

Tramps who are not French subjects are liable, on conviction, to be expelled from French territory.

The chief local institution devoted to the distribution of alms and the relief of the poor is the "Bureau de Bienfaisance," which has replaced several philanthropic societies, having the same object, which were created before the Revolution. Of these ancient societies, the two principal were the "Grande Miséricorde," whose principal care was to succor the "pauvres honteux," or poor people in distress who are ashamed to beg, and whom it relieved by supplying them with money, furniture, and aid in case of sickness, the other chief society being the "Petite Miséricorde," which extended relief in the form of clothing, food, and medical care at their homes to all other cases of indigence and distress. Four offices for gratuitous medical consultation, with

doctors and surgeons attached, were under the direction of these societies, and were established in the north, west, south, and east quarters of the town. As before stated, these societies are now incorporated in the "Bureau de Bienfaisance," the changes and modifications in its management being adopted in order that the bureau might be the better qualified to cope with the increased demands on its services arising from the development of the population and the increased number of indigent poor. One of the principal changes in its organization has been the establishment of five dispensaries in different quarters of the town, to which twenty-five doctors are attached for the town and seven for the suburbs.

The sources of income of the "Bureau de Bienfaisance" are three, viz:

(1) The revenues arising from the money forming its endowment.

(2) The municipal subsidy.

(3) The amount realized by the "droit des pauvres," or percentage collected on theater, concert, and music-hall tickets.

The income during the last four years, as shown by published statistics, is as follows:

	Francs.		Francs.
1887	368,425.47	1889	359,243.25
1888	370,314.60	1890	437,062.90

The decrease of income in 1889 was owing to a diminution of 30,000 francs in the municipal allowance, which was cut down from 72,000 to 42,000 francs. The increase of revenue in the following year resulted from—

(1) The restoration of the municipal grant to its original amount of 72,000 francs.

(2) An improvement in the method of collecting the "droit des pauvres" at the theaters.

The next most important benevolent institution is the "Société de Bienfaisance," which vies with the bureau in the amount of relief it extends to the poor; and as well as aiding the sick, it plays a most important part in the great work of the protection of children.

The official figures of the receipts and expenses of this society for 1890 are as follows:

	Francs.
Receipts	64,569.60
Expenses	63,650.10
Balance	919.50

The chief items in the expenditure are as follows:

	Francs.
For the sick	6.742.65
Provisions distributed to the destitute	2,878.70
Day schools and workrooms for 300 children	16,973.70
Working home for 85 girls	16,365.50

The "Société de Charité Maternelle," originally founded in Paris in 1784, was established in most of the towns in France with the support of the Government. The branch at Marseilles affords relief annually to about 500 mothers, and more than 800 children. The means of the society are derived from private subscriptions and small subsidies, and the annual disbursements vary from 30,000 to 40,000 francs.

The "Société Protectrice de l'Enfance," founded in 1873, and recognized as of public utility by the Government in 1875, divides its work into three heads:

(1) Help given in the shape of children's clothing, cradles, and food for women who are enceinte.

(2) Medical treatment.

(3) Protection and oversight exercised over children by its representatives in the departments where such children are placed.

The society known as "L'Ouvre de la Providence" receives children who are proved to be in a state of destitution between the ages of 7 and 11 years. The number under its care is generally about 200. As soon as the children attain the age of 14 years they are sent back to their parents or placed in situations as apprentices. During the first two years after they are so sent back or placed they continue to receive help from the society, such help being for the first year in the form of clothing and bread, and in the second year bread only. In the case of children who show an aptitude for a profession or course of study pecuniary aid is sometimes extended to them to facilitate the commencement of their career.

Another important organization is the "Assistance par le Travail," the object of which, as its name indicates, is to enable the indigent to help themselves by providing them with honest work. This is effected by means of work tickets, or "bons de travail." Every subscriber receives a certain number of these, according to the amount of his subscription, and when applied to for relief, instead of giving the applicant a sum of money he hands him a work ticket. On presenting this at the headquarters of the society the bearer is set to do a certain amount of work, for which he receives compensation in money.

According to the statistics quoted at the last monthly meeting of the society, the number of tickets thus worked out during the month was 4,910, and the sum total up to the present date was 70,383. The system of giving work to women at their homes is developing, an average of twenty per week receiving work at their homes.

The vice-president of the "Charité Efficace" stated that from the 18th of March to the 25th of April 60 applications were thoroughly inquired into at the request of subscribers, with the following results: Twenty-nine were genuine cases of distress, 13 were more or less in need, 8 were considerably exaggerated, 5 were not really in want, strictly speaking, and 5 were deliberate impostures.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

The penal code provides that any person found begging in a place provided with a public institution, having for its object the prevention of mendicancy, shall be punished with from three to six months' imprisonment, and after the conclusion of his term of imprisonment shall be placed in the workhouse.

Habitual sturdy beggars, found begging in localities where no institution as described above exists, are sentenced to a term of imprisonment varying from one to three months, but if they are arrested outside the limits of the canton where they habitually reside, the sentence will be from six months to two years.

All beggars, even if infirm, who make use of threats, or enter without leave of the owner or occupier within the precincts of any dwelling house or inclosure, or who feign wounds or infirmities for the purpose of exciting charity, or who go about together (cases of husband and wife, parents and children, and blind man and his conductor excepted) to beg, shall be condemned to a term of imprisonment varying from six months to two years.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

The general opinion that obtains here with respect to intermarriages is that cure is better than prevention, and that much more will be gained from a moral point of view by making marriage formalities easy of attainment for the poor, and so doing away with all excuse for illicit cohabitation, than by mere repressive legal measures.

With this in view, a society exists at Marseilles, known as the Œuvre Charitable de Saint-François Régis de Marseille, presided over by the bishop of the diocese, and which has as its object the prevention of illicit unions where they are contemplated, and the legitimizing of those that already exist, by aiding the indigent to procure the necessary papers and take the necessary steps for the accomplishing of the civil and religious ceremonies of marriage.

The work of the society during the past year, as shown by its official report, is as follows:

Marriages effected	646
Children legitimized	161
Marriages *in extremis* and *in domo*	4
Canonical dispensations for consanguinity, difference of religion, etc	37
Civil dispensations	10
Certificates from justices of the peace	46
Judgments from tribunals	63
Documents procured for marriages outside Marseilles	185

CHARLES B. TRAIL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Marseilles, May 4, 1892.

LYONS.

REPORT BY CONSUL FAIRFIELD.

Public begging is forbidden in this city; but, nevertheless, it prevails to some extent. Not long since one of these mendicants, who was considered to be so wretchedly poor as to be winked at by the compassionate police, was found dead in his room, and pronounced to have died by cold and starvation, but a diligent search of his premises resulted in discovering sixteen hundred dollars in money stowed away.

An asylum for mendicants is maintained at public expense, for the department of the Rhone, and in this Lyons has 400 beds. All beggars are liable to be arrested and sent there. But this provision is insufficient, and when the police know that the last bed is occupied they manage not to see those who are soliciting alms on the street and so it happens that one can seldom walk an hour, especially in certain portions of the city, without meeting some one begging. That there is but little of it (considering that the population exceeds 400,000) is evident when I state that in almost three years' residence here, while I have taken many long walks, I have never, with a single exception, seen two beggars in one day.

In the asylum of which I have spoken all who are able to work are liable to be called upon, but sometimes there is not work sufficient.

Besides this asylum the city provides a place where persons may come twice a day and get a piece of bread to be eaten on the premises. The piece is not large enough to gorge those who come, but amply large to keep from starvation. That it is eaten on the premises insures against any abuse of the charity.

In like manner provision is made for the temporary lodgment of any and all who come; but if the same person reports himself very often his case is looked into.

Besides these public charities various establishments are maintained by the churches. In all these cases the object is to secure work for all who are able to work, as far as possible.

As to the intermarriage of paupers, it may be said that those who are in almshouses are not allowed to marry, but there is no prohibition that affects the poorest who have not become a public charge. In the interest of good morals religious people encourage marriage by providing money to meet all necessary expenses.

EDW. B. FAIRFIELD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, April 15, 1892.

NANTES.

REPORT BY CONSUL DUPIN.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

A beggar is classified as an individual who goes habitually from door to door asking alms.

The dépôt de mendicité, or place of confinement for beggars, is the institution where such individuals under arrest are conducted. This institution is partly hospital and in part prison. It shelters the beggar and at the same time obliges him to work, and corrects vices and idleness too frequently encouraged by charity. Its object is not to receive vagrant beggars or tramps. (Ministerial circular, December 19, 1808.) Special laws are enacted for the above-named class.

Under the existing statutes the only means possible for the prefects to comply with the expressed desire of the conseil générale (department council) to repress vagrancy is to enforce the stringent measures prescribed in circular dated June 29, 1891.

On the 21st of August, 1891, the town council of Ancenis voted that severe measures be employed against vagrancy.

On the 30th of August, 1891, the prefect of the department of Ille et Vilaine issued a decree forbidding beggary and vagrancy throughout the department.

The minister of the interior, in a circular dated June 29, 1889, recalls the existing laws regarding beggary and vagrancy, also the circumstances under which these laws were enacted, and requests the prefects to make an energetic appeal to the mayors to notify promptly either the prefects or sous-prefects, of the presence in their districts of beggars and vagrants, whom, through insufficiency of police agents, it has been impossible to seize and place under arrest.

The minister of the interior hoped that by faithful compliance with the above rules satisfactory results might be obtained in the country at large.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

There is no real dépôt de mendicité in the department of Loire-Inférieure. There exists at Nantes an institution known as the House of St. Joseph, founded by private charities, and recognized January 11, 1845, by the municipal council as a public benefit. This institution receives paupers who have resided at least two years in the city of Nantes, and those who are natives of the city, without being residents. According to the by-laws of the institution admission is refused to all such as have been sentenced for vagrancy.

The city of Nantes gives an annual subsidy of 25,000 francs to the House of St. Joseph, and the department of Loire-Inférieure contrib-

utes annually 20,000 francs, in consideration of which the administ-
tion of the said house gives to the prefect of the Loire-Inférieure
disposal of 45 beds for the aged paupers of the department.

The average annual expenses of the dépôt de mendicité of
Loire-Inférieure from 1880 to 1884 was 67,028.20 francs.

Bureaus of charity in the department of Loire-Inférieure.

District of Ancenis	16
District of Châteaubriant	21
District of Nantes	42
District of Paimbœuf	13
District of St. Nazaire	32
Total	124

Hospitals of the department of Loire-Infréieure.

District of Ancenis	
District of Châteaubriant	
District of Nantes	
District of Paimbœuf	
District of St. Nazaire	
Total	

BILL UNDER CONSIDERATION TO ASSIST THE INDIGENT MEDICALL AND PHARMACEUTICALLY.

On the 15th of May, 1889, the prefect of the Loire-Inférieure gave
decision instituting a commission to study the question of furnishi
medical and pharmaceutical aid to the indigent throughout the depar
ment.

The chairman of the commission presented a report from which
abstract some of the most important points: The number of indige
is estimated at 19,663, of whom 5,000 are in ill health, involving f
medical care a sum of 50,000 francs per year, or 10 francs for each sic
individual.

The commission proposes that each "commune" (parish) pay a ta
of 1.50 francs for each one of its poor sick, the department furnishin
the balance, 8.50 francs.

The list of indigent to be established in each parish by a commi
sion composed of the mayor, three aldermen, one member of the burea
of charities, appointed by the prefect, and of two physicians name
by the commission.

The physicians to keep a special record of services, for which ce
tificates are given.

The druggist to do likewise, and furnish medicines at a reduced rat

This system, which is operating satisfactorily in other department
will doubtless be adopted here.

HOSPITALS FOR THE INDIGENT SICK AND INFIRM.

[Extract from the circular of 1885 issued by the prefect to the mayors of the department.]

After establishing the fact that the care of the indigent sick constitutes one of the essential parish expenses, the law of August 7, 1851, Article 5, specifies that the sick and incurable indigents in the parishes, where there are no hospitals, be admitted at the hospitals of the department, subject to the discretion of the prefect, who, in concert with the trustees of the hospitals, regulates the compensation received by said hospitals.

As yet there is no such convention established between the hospitals and the prefect, though the "Hôtel-Dieu," at Nantes, is bound by its by-laws to admit, on the authorization of the prefect, free of charge for surgical operation, all paupers of the department; but this obligation does not extend to sickness, and no hospital except a few endowed for that purpose, is compelled to open its doors to the sick of neighboring parishes.

Nearly all the parishes have acquiesced to the proposition of the prefect, and the administration of the department has agreed to furnish 6,200 francs per annum to the hospitals, the department in each case furnishing the balance for each parish.

Children who received public assistance at the hospitals during the year 1890.

Foundling Asylum:		
1 day to 13 years old	999	
13 to 21 years old	465	
		1,464
Others who receive help:		
Illegitimate children	563	
Born in hospitals	82	
Orphans	37	
		682
Total		2,146

On the 31st of December, 1890, the number was reduced to 1,480, namely:

Foundling Asylum:		
1 day to 13 years old	749	
13 to 21 years old	424	
		1,173
Abandoned children:		
1 day to 13 years old	12	
13 to 21 years old	1	
		13
Others who receive help:		
Illegitimate children	245	
Born in hospitals	49	
		294
Total		1,480

During the year 1890 the total expense for care of the child amounted to 217,951.96 francs.

Apart from the assistance above given there are in the departm especially at Nantes, a number of asylums endowed and sustained private charities to come to the relief of the aged and infirm as wel for fallen women. These institutions are religious communities. ' society of St. Vincent de Paul is also one of the great sources of r to the poor and needy. This society obtains good results advising rents, educating children, making of these latter good citizens able to earn their own living.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

Concubinage, and not intermarriage, is the great existing evil am the French paupers. To restrict this evil there is a society ca "Société de St. Régis," which has for its object to elevate the m standard of this class and induce them to be legally married. ' society defrays all marriage expenses, and the mayoralty executes gr all the formalities required by the French law.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

In view of the relief furnished by the department and the numer charitable institutions, it would appear that vagrancy and begg would be nearly, if not entirely, suppressed. Unfortunately, this is the case; beggary appears to have its attraction for a certain class, it is a public nuisance which it is impossible to suppress. Still, as I beggars at the angle of every street, at the doors of churches, chap in fact everywhere, I reflect what would it be were it not for the g public and private charities of the city of Nantes.

H. DE SALLIER-DUPIN,
Consu

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nantes, May 25, 1892.

RHEIMS.

REPORT BY CONSUL ANGIER.

(1) Although there is an ordinance of the city council against begg it is in nowise executed in this community, and these pests of soc will solicit alms right under the eyes of the city officials, from the m down to the lowest police officer, and no attempt whatever will be m either to arrest the offenders or their conduct. There is one beg who takes his stand daily on the sidewalk, right in front of the p office, the most central, public, and busiest location in the city, there plies his vocatino all day long, without interruption by the po

nd I think he derives a right good income from his "business." The dewalk and streets in front of the cathedral and the other churches ere are thronged with them every Sunday, every feast day, and upon ll occasions when there is a celebration of a marriage, a mass for the ead, or any other public ceremony that usually draws a crowd together. They will follow strangers two or three squares, begging all he time in the most importunate manner, and I have seen some trangers give them alms, not so much for charity, as to rid themselves f the nuisance.

(2) The rich of this community are very rich; the poor very poor. There are several benevolent societies supported by the rich, which lispense, once a week, bread, meat, potatoes, coal in winter, etc., to the poor. In sickness anyone can go to the hospital and be cared for at public expense until cured.

(3) No efforts whatever are being made for the punishment or suppression of begging.

(4) So far as my information goes, no efforts are being made to convert beggars into self-supporting members of society.

(5) The dispensation of public and private charities is a necessity here, here being more people than can find work. The city gives employment to a large number of the old and decrepit of sweeping the streets ith brush brooms, for which they receive about 18 cents a day. hey do little or nothing, but the city keeps them occupied doing next nothing at the small compensation named, to give them the idea at they are really doing and earning something. They are but little tter than beggars, and some of them do beg from the passers-by.

(6) As stated in answer No. 5, the dispensation of charities is a necesty, not given with the view of elevating the recipients of such charies to the condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence. he recipients would starve if they were not thus provided for.

(7) No efforts whatever have been made to prevent the intermarriages either paupers or beggars.

I regret that I am not able to make a more favorable report on this bject; but the condition of affairs here is about as I have told it ove, and is very deplorable. In the long and severe winters they ve over here there is much suffering among the poor.

ALTON ANGIER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Rheims, April 12, 1892.

ROUBAIX.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT ATWELL.

Public charities and vagrancy of vagrants, generally designated "tramps," are controlled or regulated by police regulations.

The methods employed for the distribution of alms are a bureau of charity in each town, supported by private subscription.

There are laws for the arrest and imprisonment of street beggars, but they are rarely enforced. Men, women, and children, particularly the latter, beg openly and persistently in the streets of Roubaix and Lille.

There seems to be no concerted public effort in this district for the conversion of beggars and "tramps" to self-supporting members of society Individual cases of misery are relieved as they present themselves at the bureau of charity, as long as the funds donated by private subscription last. The daily papers, particularly in winter, solicit subscriptions from the public for pressing cases that are brought to their notice, and for heating the few and inadequate night shelters that are opened during the most severe winter months.

The best and most practical system of charity is giving employment to those out of work. Catholic priests in this district visit mills and factories and solicit employment from their parishioners for those whom they deem worthy of confidence.

W. P. ATWELL,
Commercial Agent.

ROUBAIX, FRANCE,
March 12, 1892.

GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL MASON, OF FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAIN.

It was natural that in Germany public philanthropy should have first been organized, disciplined, and reduced to a carefully regulated system. It was here that, for various historic and economic reasons, the necessity for such an organization first became imperative, and this having been recognized, its development has been in strict accordance with the systematic tendencies of German character and education.

Notwithstanding all that has been done in other countries, notably in England and the United States, for the alleviation of human misery through public and private charity, it may be justly said that here the restraint of vagrancy and the relief of deserving indigence have first received the careful study and treatment which lift benevolence from sentiment to a science. In respect to both these forms of social evil the necessity for thorough and intelligent treatment had become urgent

ı this country about a quarter of a century ago. The vagrancy to be ɔstrained and the want to be relieved were so widespread and perıading that a system was required that would cover the entire field, nd under which every thaler expended would go where it was needed nd effect a definite result. Out of this necessity, and the German enchant for system-making, has grown the elaborate, complex, but horoughly effective administration of public charities which it is the urpose of this report to briefly describe.

The system divides itself naturally into two departments or categoies, with reference to the special field in which it is to operate. The irst of these includes the machinery which is provided for the restraint ınd reformation of that species of vagabond known in America as the 'tramp;" the second category comprises the admirable scheme of organized charity that reaches to every hut and garret of the German Empire, and distributes equitably the burden of maintaining the worthy poor, while at the same time conserving the self-respect of the person relieved. These two departments, although complimentary in operation, are distinct in organization and management, and collectively form one of the consummate products of philanthropic legislation.

I. CONTROL AND REFORM OF VAGRANTS.

The tramp habit reached its culmination in Germany soon after the close of the war of 1870–'71, which had followed with only a brief interval the Austro-Prussian struggle of 1866. In 1873, not less than 200,000 men and boys were living as vagabonds in Germany, begging from town to town demoralizing and in many instances, terrifying the rural communities. Not all of these unemployed vagrants were vicious, or even lazy. Many were men who had served through one or both wars, and had been discharged at a time when industries were at a low ebb; they were searching for work that could not be found, and continued failure had entailed suffering and demoralization. The hopeful craftsman who had started out in compliance with the old German custom under which apprentices traveled from place to place working for their bread while they learned their trades from the best masters, became at the end of a few months ragged, dirty, and famished, ready to beg, bully, or steal, as occasion offered. The support of this army of vagabonds cost the people in alms, and food, sixty million marks per annum, a grievous burden for a nation struggling under conditions which then prevailed in Germany. What was still worse, the money spent brought no permanent relief; the vagabond horde grew larger nd more menacing day by day. Against this threatening evil society ombined, and developed in the course of years the complete system at we find to-day.

The first step was the organization, in towns and villages, of anti-ggary societies (Verein gegen Armennoth und Bettelei), the members which pay a certain yearly fee to the treasury of the Verein, and agree

to give nothing to beggars who apply at their doors. A small metal disk is fastened at the front door of each member, bearing the name of the society, and this means to the beggar that his appeal for alms will be denied and he will be referred to the office of the Verein, where his case will be carefully examined into before relief is granted. The Verein, moreover, keeps an employment office and looks temporarily after the most pressing cases of local distress which require immediate succor and can afterwards be turned over to the regular poor authorities (Armen Verwaltung). The Verein further provides a relief station (Verpflegungs station), which is located near the principal entrance to the town, or, in case of a large city, there may be several of these stations outside its suburbs where, by a few hours' work, the destitute wayfarer may earn a ticket which will entitle him to food and lodging at the "Herberge," or lodging house, which is not far away. This "Herberge" is established and supported by the municipal or communal government from the public fund. It is a plain, quiet, country boarding house, where wholesome food and clean beds can be had, but no liquors. Its maintenance is the price which the community pays for exemption from the tramp nuisance. Thus the Antibeggary Verein refuses the vagabond food or money at its own doors, but sends him to the relief station where, by sawing wood or other simple labor, he can earn, not money for drink, but food and lodging at the Herberge, where, while he remains, he must behave like a Christian.

The next morning he must declare his intentions. If he is looking for work, as is usually the case, he is provided with a ticket inscribed with his name, age, origin, and the route that he intends to take in search of work. If he wanders far from that route he is liable to arrest by the first rural policeman (Landjäger) whose precinct he enters, in which case his card is taken away and he is locked up for a season, to be dismissed with a reprimand and another card which will pass him to the nearest Herberge in the direction that he wishes to take, provided he arrives there not later than 2 o'clock in the afternoon. There, if his card is in order, he receives his dinner, his afternoon work, supper, bed, and the next morning his breakfast and a new card that will pass him on to the next Herberge, allowing time to seek for work along the way and arrive by 2 o'clock. If he comes later than that, unless detained by accident or other controlling reason, he gets nothing and has to make the best shift he can outside for the night. In this way a man can walk over almost the whole of Germany without ever being destitute of food or shelter, and without ever having money enough to buy a dram of liquor. The monotony and enforced regularity of each forenoon's walk soon render the life stale and wearisome; the tramp soon seeks work as a means of regaining his independence and escaping the constant surveillance to which his ticket exposes him.

It is thus that private philanthrophy and municipal benevolence work hand in hand to deliver society from the vagrant and to reclaim

the vagabond himself from sloth and intemperance. No citizen need give alms to the beggar and thus expose him to the temptation of drink, neither need he give food or shelter to be enjoyed in idleness, for both stand ready at the city gate, provided the applicant is willing to work for them.

It will be readily inferred that the effect of this part of the system is to provide mainly for the better class of vagrants, men who have sufficient force of character to keep on the right road, and to either find work or reach the next station before the specified hour. The remainder, usually a minority, with whom the habit of aimless dawdling along the road, singly or in squads, has become fixed and incurable, are under arrest or in prison much of the time, for it must be understood that the law makes vagrancy a crime. The statistics of 1890 show that there were in that year 1,957 relief stations and 364 herbergen in operation in Germany, at which 1,662,606 breakfasts, 972,490 dinners, 1,871,591 suppers, and 2,223,000 lodgings were provided.

So far as it goes, this part of the machinery of charity is practically effective. It relieves the towns and villages from the drain and menace of vagrant beggary, keeps the vagabond class under police surveillance, forces them to earn their food and lodging or go without either, and by keeping them constantly moving from station to station prevents aggregation in gangs like those which often become so audacious and formidable in the United States. But all this is after all only a temporary expedient, the chief merit of which is that it makes a tramp seek for work. There are many instances in which he can not find even temporary employment, or, if he can, is unable through illness or inexperience to perform such labor as is offered, however good may be his intentions. If he loses his health and can not make his daily jaunt from station to station, there is nothing for him but to go to prison, with all the degradation and loss of manhood which that involves. There was needed, therefore, to complete the system, a further and higher class of retreat, to which the well-disposed unfortunate could go and live respectably while waiting for work or during the seasons when his special kind of labor is impossible—a place which, while not affording advantages equal to those of regular legitimate employment, will emancipate him from the necessity of a daily tramp which, if fruitless in finding labor, steadily degrades him to the level of a professional vagrant.

LABOR COLONIES.

To meet this necessity the latest and most advanced contribution has been made to the German system during the past ten years, in the form of labor colonies (Arbeiter Colonien), of which there are now twenty-four established in various parts of the Empire, the one for the district of Frankfort being a farm of 140 acres at New Ulrichstein,

near Giessen. These colonies are uniformly farms located in quiet, secluded districts, apart from the main thoroughfares of travel and the temptations of cities and large towns. They are usually established on land which, being originally poor and cheap, requires a large outlay of manual labor for its development. The farm at New Ulrichstein has room for 100 colonists, and is a fair example of its class, although many are much smaller, the one at Madgeburg, for instance, containing only twenty-two beds. But the oldest, largest, and by far the most interesting of these colonies, is the one at Wilhelmsdorf, a few miles from Bielefeld, in northern Westphalia. It is located in the midst of a dreary waste of sand, once the bed of a lake or sea, and so sterile that it had never been cultivated. Here it was found that underlying the sand at a depth of about a yard, there is a stratum of tenacious marl, which, upon exposure to the sun and rain, crumbles into a productive soil. To turn up the ground with pick and spade to a depth of four or five feet, burying the sand and leaving the marl at the surface, is a task which no farmer could afford to do for profit, and which, when done by the voluntary labor of the Arbeiter Colonie, would offer no serious competition to legitimate agriculture.

The colony at Wilhelmsdorf was opened during the summer of 1882, and from that time until 1890, when the latest statistics were published, it had sheltered 5,694 colonists and provided a little more than 48,000 days of labor, which, among other results, had transformed a large portion of the sterile tract into fertile fields, wherein the vegetables and small fruits consumed by the colonists are grown. Arbeiter Colonies are not self-supporting, and do not pretend to be. They require a constant, though moderate, subvention to make their accounts balance, but the amount of this deficit is considered small in proportion to the important role that they play in the work of reform. The net cost of maintaining a colonist, outside of such food as the farm produces, is estimated at 13 cents per day. Wilhelmsdorf has 200 beds, and requires a subvention of $7,500 a year, the collective earnings of the colonists being reckoned at an equal sum.

The conditions of admission and retention are uniform throughout all the colonies, and are substantially as follows: The colonies not being in any sense penal institutions, admission is purely voluntary. The only penalty which the institution can inflict upon its inmates is that of dismissal. The sojourn of a colonist may be continued two years, on the simple condition of industry and good behavior. A man may come and go when he pleases; no restriction except the two years' limit of sojourn is imposed. The cost of a colonist's maintenance being 13 cents per day it is assumed that he earns that amount by half a day's labor. During the first two weeks of his stay he must work for simply his food and lodging, but after that, if he labors through the afternoon, he is credited with 13 cents, as the net proceeds of his day's work in excess of his maintenance, which was earned during the forenoon. The colony

rs, therefore, small but sure pay for diligent work, it secures to each ate a permanent home for two years, entirely free from temptation under Christian influences, for the superintendent of the colony mbles his flock for prayer each morning before leading them to work, Sunday is a day of rest, worship, and wholesome recreation. The of a colonist is neither fascinating nor lucrative, but it offers a wel- e opportunity to those who wish to escape temptation, retain their respect, and regain their footing in the struggle of life. Many men , among the allurements of a city could never reform, are here so far aimed within less than two years that with the aid of the superinten- t they are able to secure employment in good positions, to which y go directly on leaving the colony. The records of Wilhelmsdorf w that in 8 years it received 5,637 colonists, of whom only 275 ran ay or were dismissed for misconduct, while 2,678 left it to enter itions which they had secured for themselves, or which had been ured for them by the officers of the institution.

The other colonies have been established at various times during the t 8 years, and as already indicated, are much smaller than Wilhelms- f, their average capacity being not more than one hundred beds. llectively they had received, down to October, 1891, 40,555 colonists, ong whom have been many men of liberal education and more than erage abilities, who, through weakness or misfortune, had fallen under harrow and could not regain their footing without the restraint and port of an Arbeiter Colonie.

Thus far it is conceded by those most competent to judge, that the onies have supplemented most acceptably the work of the antibeg- y societies, the relief stations, and the Herbergen, by offering a e and dignified retreat for such of the fallen as have the desire and ength to rise. The precise measure of their permanent effect upon morals of the community, their efficiency in thoroughly reforming rants and reducing crime, is yet to be determined. The colony at lhelmsdorf has been in operation ten years under charge of a direc- of exceptional zeal and ability, so that its results are probably quite ve the general average. Some of the other colonies are of compara- ly recent foundation, and their work is too immature to furnish a is of accurate study. Dr. Berthold, who made a careful analysis of statistics furnished by the colonies which were in operation during years 1887-'88-'89, demonstrated that the average results were te below those which have been above quoted from Wilhelmsdorf. found that of all the inmates admitted to colonies during those e years, 7.7 per cent left within the first week; 25.7 per cent left hin a month; 41 per cent within two months; 2 per cent were trans- ed to public hospitals, 4.4 per cent were dismissed for misconduct, er cent ran away, and only 5.5 per cent remained to the end of the scribed two years. Of the entire number who left of their own ord, 20.8 per cent, or only one in five, had obtained definite employ-

ment elsewhere, the remainder went away because they were weary of a colonist's life, or felt strong enough to resume the struggle on their own account. Many, of course, went back to vagrant lives, but how many can not be definitely ascertained, and this forms the unknown element in the problem. Naturally the success of the colonies in permanently reforming their inmates must depend largely on their ability to place them in situations which offer permanent and congenial employment, and this must always be governed largely by the prevailing industrial situation and the condition of the labor market. That the vagrant army of 1873 has been reduced to a comparatively small contingent is evident, but how much of this result is due to the Arbeiter Colonien, and how much to the extraordinary development of German industries, which has taken place during the intervening period, would be difficult to determine.

In respect to administration, experience appears to show that in order to accomplish the best results workmen's colonies should be small and should embody, as far as possible, the character of an informal unofficial Christian home. It is this home quality, the atmosphere of personal association and respect, which exerts the most potent influence over a vagrant. The larger the colony, the more official and impersonal its management, the less effective will be its reformatory influence. The record of Wilhelmsdorf may seem to contradict this hypothesis, but Wilhelmsdorf is an exceptional institution, managed by a director of phenomenal zeal and ability, so that its experience does not controvert the general rule. Whether the absolute freedom to come and go at will which has been thus far vouchsafed to all inmates of labor colonies is wisest in practice as it unquestionably is in theory may be regarded doubtful. Berthold found that of the 5,556 colonists who were registered in 1888, 65 per cent were inmates of a colony for the first time, while 35 per cent had been there at least once before, and some had been registered four or five times. As a remedy for this restlessness he proposes a period of enforced residence and labor without pay, this period to be lengthened with each successive return of the same person to a colony. This principle has indeed been already adopted at a small branch colony attached to the main institution at Wilhelmsdorf for the special treatment of chronic victims of the drink habit. Admission is voluntary there as elsewhere, but the inmate enters with the understanding that he is to remain long enough to enjoy a reasonable chance of reform, and this obligation he can only evade by running away.

There are some other unsettled questions growing out of the colony system which, for reasons of space, can only be mentioned here. Among these are the religious complications which inevitably arise in the teaching of a heterogeneous company, and which have been met provisionally at least, by placing two of the colonies under the control of the Catholic church.

Another important question is whether the colonies themselves ıould not be graded, so as to sift the colonists, divide them into classes ccording to character, and by keeping these classes separate enable ıe worthier ones to receive treatment and opportunities better adapted ı their requirements. An experiment in this direction was begun ıst year in the formation of a home colony at Bremerhaven under the ıanagement of Pastor Cronemeyer, who proposes to receive a limited umber of especially deserving colonists selected and recommended rom the other colonies, each of whom is to be placed on a small piece f ground, which he is to cultivate and gradually purchase with the roceeds of his own labor. If this trial succeeds, the introduction of he grading system among the other colonies is not unlikely to follow, or hitherto the enforced mingling of all sorts and conditions of colonists, he idle and depraved with the industrious and self-respecting, has een found to be one of the radical defects of the system.

II. DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

The German system of public charity, which was described in a rmer report of this series (January 15, 1890), is based upon a compre-ensive statute that was adopted by Prussia in June, 1870, and was ıbsequently concurred in all the states of the Empire except Bavaria ıd Alsace-Lorraine, both of which provinces had special methods of or-law administration which they preferred to retain. The law is a reful elaboration of the so-called Elberfeld system, and comprises xty-five articles or topics, each detail of which is wrought out with ıe minute, painstaking thoroughness peculiar to German legislation. Many of its provisions would be hardly applicable to the methods of cal government which prevail in the United States, but its vital inciple is the recognition of an inherent right in citizenship which ould seem to be adaptable under any liberal form of administration, otably that of a republic. It is based on the idea that every citizen this country, living on German soil, and who through the chances of e may become destitute, is entitled by virtue of such citizenship to lief, and this not as charity but as a right, the exercise of which en-ils no necessary discredit, nor any obligation except the pecuniary bt which is thereby incurred. In other words, the law provides for n relief in time of misfortune, not as a gift, but a loan which, if cumstances permit, he is morally bound to repay. This relief is re-ired by law to be always ready and at hand to meet every emergency, t at a distant county seat nor behind the plodding formalities of a mmittee, but in every street and neighborhood, in the hands of a ell-disposed and trustworthy citizen whose faithful discharge of this ust is a sworn and solemn duty. Succor under such conditions does ot brand the unfortunate as a mendicant nor entail that fatal sacrifice self-respect which unmans and degrades the ordinary beggar or

poorhouse inmate who accepts relief without the obligation or chance of repayment.

The application of a principle so broad and generous as this to the exigencies of daily life in a country where population is redundant and wages meager in proportion to the cost of living, would lead to gross abuses if the law were not administered with extreme care, and by the coöperation of a large number of intelligent and disinterested persons. This the original statute of 1870 and the supplementary enactment of 1871 are adroitly framed to secure. It is provided that public charity shall be exercised through the agency of local and district unions for the poor. The local unions (Ortsarmenverbände) are the organizations which have charge of the poor in cities and towns which have an independent municipal government. District unions (Landarmenverbände) are those in which several villages and communes in a rural district are united for that special purpose. The organization and working of a local and a district union are identical in theory, and as nearly so in practice as the diverse conditions of city and country life will permit. The "Armenverband" of Frankfort may therefore be analyzed as a representative unit of the entire system. Under its management the city is divided into twenty-four precincts, in each of which there is a local committee comprising a chairman, a vice-chairman, who is also secretary, and a district physician. The twenty-four precinct committees are appointed and controlled by a central board, which includes the mayor, a chairman (who is a member of the city council and specially designated as the official head of the department of public charity,) the chief city physician, and four working members, who are usually men of wealth and leisure, with a special inclination toward philanthropic work. This board, which has supreme control in all that relates to the relief and care of the poor, meets in regular session once each fortnight, at which time there are present most or all of the twenty-four chairmen of precinct committees, each of whom reports and answers inquiries concerning the work in his district.

The central board and the precinct committees may be called the field and line officers under whose command the army of charity watches, day and night, over the destitute and suffering. The real workers, the privates in the ranks, to whose share fall the principal labor and responsibility, are the visitors (armenpfleger), of whom there are from fifteen to twenty-seven in each of the precincts already described. These visitors are appointed by the central board, and are chosen from among the best class of citizens. Liability to service as armenpfleger is one of the most sacred duties of German citizenship from which no person, however wealthy and preoccupied, can honorably escape except for reasons of the gravest urgency, which must be approved by the appointing power. The service must also be rendered gratuitously, and any refusal or negligence subjects the delinquent first to a reprimand from the chairman of his precinct, then, if the

fense be repeated, from the central board, and finally to a loss of his vil rights for a term of years, and an increase of from 12 to 20 per ent in his municipal taxes. Upon the faithful, conscientious work of he visitors depends the efficiency of the entire system, and an appointment to that service implies the respect of not only a man's neighbors, ut that of the municipal government. When an armenpfleger is thus ppointed he is summoned, usually in company with the chairman of his precinct, to appear before the chairman of the central board for nstruction in his duties. These are all elaborately explained, the new visitor is exhorted to zealous and faithful service, and takes a solemn oath of office.

The municipal government publishes annually a book or official register (Handbuch der Städtlichen Verwaltung) which shows, among many other things, the name, profession, and residence of each armenpfleger in every precinct of the city, together with the streets and houses, by number, over which he has supervision. The pamphlet also states the rules and conditions under which assistance can be claimed and rendered, as well as the names and locations of all hospitals, asylums, créches, and other charitable institutions. The visitors number, as already stated, from fifteen to twenty-seven in each precinct, according to the density of population and the proportion of the poorer class of people in that neighborhood. This varies greatly in different quarters, but as Frankfort has a total population of 180,000, the contingent belonging to each visitor may be held to average about 380 persons. To most of these he soon becomes personally known, and is looked up to as the guardian and Samaritan of his little community.

When a person in distress applies at a Frankfort door for relief, the first question asked is where the applicant lives. This being declared, reference is made to the "Handbuch," which shows at a glance to whose subdivision of which precinct the given address belongs, and to the visitor of that subdivision the sufferer is at once referred. There need be no parleying or indiscriminate almsgiving; the applicant is certain of relief if he will only apply to the right person and is found to deserve it. In case of immediate necessity, the proper visitor can provide at once money, food, medical attendance, or whatever else is needed. It then becomes his duty to investigate the whole case, the situation and antecedents of that applicant and his family, if he have one, and report the same fully to the chairman of his precinct, who presents it at the next regular meeting of the central board, where it is considered, often referred back for further inquiry, and a final decision rendered as to what shall be done in future for the support of the person or family. A large proportion of cases are those of widows and abandoned wives, left with children to support, or families left destitute by the prolonged illness of the father. In such instances it is generally deemed best to give a regular allowance in money, thus enabling the family to maintain a home, keep its members together,

and avoid the necessity of being distributed around among hospitals and infirmaries. As all this costs annually a large amount of money which the cities and communities must collect by taxation, great care is taken by the authorities of each precinct that they do not support the poor belonging to other localities. The question of an applicant's domicile or permanent residence is, therefore, of the first importance. The right of domicile and consequent claim to public relief in case of need is acquired only by birth, marriage, or residence for not less than two years in a specified locality after the individual is at least 24 years of age. The right of domicile is lost by two years' unbroken absence on part of a person 24 years of age or older, or by the acquisition of domicile elsewhere. Women acquire by marriage the domicile of their husbands, and illegitimate children or those of parents judicially separated obtain the domicile of the mother. When it happens that a person falls ill or in want while outside the district of his domicile the local union must make the necessary provision for his comfort for a period of six weeks, if needed, but the cost of such provision becomes a charge to be repaid on presentation by the district union to which the succored person belongs. Similarly, German citizens who by change of residence from one state to another have temporarily lost their domicile may be succored by the local union at their new place of residence and the cost charged to the government of the state in which they were previously located. Disputed cases of this class are referred to a special tribunal provided for the purpose in each state, and, in case of disagreement between two of these, a special court of appeals at Berlin renders a decisive judgment.

The assistance vouchsafed to every German citizen by this compulsory system includes food and clothing for immediate need, temporary or permanent employment in an asylum or infirmary, medical attendance and nursing in case of illness, and in the event of death a decent burial. If, with recovered health and regained prosperity, he should forget his obligation to repay the bounty that he received in time of need, the authorities of his commune will remind him of his duty, and his record as a citizen will not be clear until this obligation is canceled.

It has been explained that the only part of Germany which is exempt from the operation of this system is the Kingdom of Bavaria and the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, all of which have laws under which public charity is optional and voluntary. These diverse systems afford ground for many interesting comparisons into which this report can not enter, except in relation to one point which is included in the Department's inquiry, the question being whether there is in Germany any systematic effort to prevent marriages among paupers, and if so what has been the effect of such restriction. Under the general law there is no provision which forbids or specially restricts marriage between any class of citizens, however poor, it being thought better that even paupers should marry than that the illegitimate birthrate

ld be increased, as it uniformly is by any class restriction in re-
t to marriage. In Bavaria, on the other hand, the law requires as
ndition precedent to marriage that the contracting parties shall
ess jointly a certain amount of property. The result has been a
inished marriage rate, and the highest illegitimate birth rate in
many, if not in all Europe. Morally, at least, the contrast between
ssia and Bavaria is in favor of compulsory charity and against class
riction of marriage.

he net result of the present methods of controlling vagrancy and
viding for the deserving poor in Germany may be summarized, from
ervation in Frankfort, as follows: There is practically no indis-
ninate distribution of alms, and few or no beggars or peddlers except
ew maimed and deformed persons who are permitted under certain
trictions to sell matches on the streets, but not to solicit alms.
en the plaintive organ-grinder is suppressed, and is only permitted
play on Wednesdays in courts and large doorways, but never to
truct a public street. There are apparently no tramps, either in
n or country, in this section of Germany, and this notwithstanding
enerally depressed condition of most industries. At no time during
past ten years has the relation between wages and the cost of
ng been more inequitable and trying to the laboring classes than
. The cost of food, clothing, and shelter has increased out of all
portion to the value of labor, and this, more than all other reasons
bined, is the underlying cause of the prevailing discontent.

he administration of the vagrant and poor-law systems has cost the
of Frankfort during the past eight years from $169,000 in 1883–'84
189,000 in 1890–'91. This amounts to from 6.60 per cent to 8.79 per
of the total yearly expenditure of the city government for all pur-
es. Of the gross yearly outlay for charitable purposes, $64,000 is
ved from the income of certain endowments left by wealthy ben-
tors a generation or more ago; the remainder is derived from direct
ation, the proportion of which per capita, for each inhabitant of the
, being only 56.6 cents in 1883, 48 cents in 1887, and 44.8 cents in
.

at it must be remembered that the Antibeggary Society is sup-
ed by private contributions, and that the visitors (armenpfleger)
do the principal work of caring for the poor give their services
uitously for the public good.

FRANK H. MASON,
Consul-General.

NITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Frankfort, May 20, 1892.

AIX LA CHAPELLE.

REPORT BY CONSUL WEARE.

(1) That class of vagrants generally designated tramps, if not German citizens, the police send across the border into Belgium and Holland, whence they are often sent back, and then the city authorities imprison them for a time, then release them on a promise of their leaving the district. If they return they are sent to the workhouse. If German citizens they are put in the workhouse.

(2) The city is divided into districts. The mayor appoints a committee in each district whose duty it is to examine into the condition of the poor. If they think they are needy they will relieve them. The city has a large permanent fund for that purpose. There are very little private charities.

(3) There is a law prohibiting begging, which is well enforced. Beggars are seldom seen on the streets.

(4) There are no efforts made toward converting "beggars" and "tramps" to self-supporting members of society.

(5) The system of relief seems to be quite effective in relieving the wants of the poor.

(6) There is no system which seeks to elevate the intellectual, moral, or financial condition of the recipient. The Catholic religion prevails almost entirely here. The Church, as far as I can see, does very little charitable work in the lines under discussion.

CHARLES WEARE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Aix la Chapelle, May 14, 1892.

BADEN.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL HANSMANN, OF KEHL.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

The area of Baden is 15,081 square kilometers, or 5,514 square miles. Population December 1, 1890, 1,657,867.

During the year 1891 there were 4,944 convictions for begging and vagrancy. The number of persons convicted was 4,080; in 864 cases the party had been punished for the same offense during the course of the year. Since 1880 the annual number of punishments decreed and of the different parties punished has been as follows:

Year.	Punishments decreed.	Persons punished.
1880	20,866	(*)
1881	17,794	(*)
1882	12,105	(*)
1883	9,890	(*)
1884	6,952	5,679
1885	5,735	4,835
1886	6,464	5,270
1887	6,311	5,192
1888	5,173	4,228
1889	5,182	4,263
1890	4,543	3,829
1891	4,944	4,080

*No record kept.

Since 1880 the number of cases has diminished fully three-fourths. The diminution has been steady, and the small increase in 1891 seems of little consequence.

The following table shows the number of punished cases falling on the different months:

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total.
1884	1,209	997	702	502	486	370	388	387	296	436	471	708	6,952
1885	946	709	595	364	405	338	313	321	237	326	536	645	5,735
1886	955	848	681	351	402	405	407	398	285	428	524	780	6,464
1887	1,061	897	693	462	389	329	335	320	295	375	501	654	6,311
1888	815	854	604	361	238	270	332	259	180	250	400	610	5,173
1889	837	804	610	311	295	235	279	271	214	286	389	651	5,182
1890	708	541	478	290	271	251	256	212	221	249	475	591	4,543
1891	701	665	453	304	257	277	230	242	261	322	561	671	4,944
Per cent in 1891	14.2	13.4	9.2	6.1	5.6	5.6	4.7	5.0	5.02	6.5	11.3	13.6	100.0

The highest number is reached in January; the lowest toward the end of summer. The number closely follows the inclemencies of the season.

Of the total number of cases punished in 1891, 4,639, or 93.8 per cent, were men; 305, or 6.2 per cent, were women. During the preceding year the women furnished 8.1 per cent; 1,790 cases were citizens of Baden, 2,699 citizens of other German states, 455 were aliens; 3,466 persons were punished once, 444 twice, 115 three times, 38 four times, 12 five times, 3 six times, 1 each seven times and eight times.

According to age and sex the division was as follows:

Age.	Men.	Women.	Total.
Under 14	5	.....	5
14 to 20	796	47	843
20 to 25	696	32	728
25 to 30	462	27	489
30 to 40	730	42	772
40 to 50	632	55	687
50 to 60	323	46	369
60 to 70	117	31	148
Over 70	31	8	39

Of the men punished, 3,456, or 91.1 per cent, were unmarried; 203, or 5.4 per cent, married; 125, or 3.3 per cent, were widowers, and 8, or 0.2

per cent, divorced. Of the female beggars, 159, or 55.2 per cent, were unmarried; 95, or 33 per cent, married; 33, or 11.5 per cent, widows, and 1, or 0.3 per cent, divorced.

Five hundred and ninety-nine men were punished more than once during the year and only 15 women.

With reference to their domestic relations, 544 of the men punished more than once were unmarried, 32 married, 23 widowers; of the women, 11 were single, 3 married, 1 a widow; 2,591 of the persons punished belong to the various trades; 734 were day laborers, 249 employed in commerce, 200 domestic servants, 158 employed in agriculture, and 148 had no occupation.

After serving their sentence for begging and vagrancy, 148 men and 31 women were sent to the workhouse for periods varying from six months to two years. The age and sex of these were as follows:

Age.	Men.	Women.
16 to 20	11	[illegible]
20 to 25	16	[illegible]
25 to 30	17	[illegible]
30 to 35	24	[illegible]
35 to 40	22	[illegible]
40 to 50	37	[illegible]
50 to 60	21	1

Sixteen men and one woman were ordered to leave the Empire, and 853 persons were ordered to leave the Grand Duchy.

CARL A. HANSMANN,
Vice and Deputy Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Kehl, October 25, 1892.

BAVARIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL BLACK, OF NUREMBERG.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

The floating population of the city of Nuremberg is controlled by a daily revision of what is known as the "Fremden-Zettel," that is, a list of all the strangers residing within the city limits. All hotels, inns, or lodging houses of whatever nature or description, as well as private householders, are required to furnish daily a list of all strangers arriving or departing, together with their residence and occupation, and the failure on the part of anyone to make such a report within twenty-four hours, subjects him or her to a fine not exceeding 15 marks.

The strictest surveillance is kept over the lowest class inns, lodging houses, and homes, the occupants of which are subjected to a rigid examination as to the amount of money they possess, as to whether or

ot they have employment, and, if not, for how long a time they have een unemployed, besides which a careful scrutiny of their passport and raveling papers is made. Localities and streets known by the officials o be the haunts of beggars, vagabonds, etc., are subjected from time o time to "razzias" or raids.

Those persons who are without means and who are unable to obtain mployment, and indigent persons who by reason of age or some bodily ffliction are unable to make a livelihood are assisted by the public harities of their respective districts, and aid will be extended to the oor from other parishes, provided, the districts to which they belong re willing to reimburse the outlay, but if they are unwilling to do so, hen the mendicant is returned to his district or, if he be a foreigner, e is conveyed to the frontier nearest his country. These provisions of he law I think worthy of note and commendation.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

There is in this city a most worthy and excellent private charity known as the "Wander unterstützungs-Verein" (association for the assistance of wanderers).

The funds for it are obtained by private subscription, and upon the door and place of business of every subscriber may be seen a plate bearing the following inscription: "Mitglied des Wanderunterstützungs-Vereins" (Member of the association for the assistance of wanderers). It is a notification that no applicant for alms will be rewarded at that house, the idea appears most excellent, for it not only prevents that premium upon vagrancy door to door begging, but it concentrates the disposition of charity into the hands of those able to discriminate between worthy and unworthy cases and prevents the unnecessary waste of funds and sympathy which is too frequently showered upon professional beggars at the door. Its functions are to distribute some money assistance to unemployed laborers passing through the city, in return for which the performance of some work is expected, provided there is any to be done.

Many of these associations in Bavaria, especially in the smaller towns, supply not only a sum of money but also meals. Connected with most of them is a bureau of labor, where those seeking work can obtain the ntelligence as to where employment may be found.

It may be well to note here that it is quite customary for workmen on the Continent to go on foot from place to place seeking employment.

There are also souphouses here where meals may be obtained at a very heap rate, a home for Catholic workmen and one for Protestant female ervants, also an association having for its object the assistance of ischarged prisoners, heated rooms for the homeless opened during he day in winter, and a number of free beds for them at night. Other rivate charitable institutions also exist, but they are exclusively for he benefit of the poor domiciled within the city of Nuremberg.

There is at Simonshof, in Bavaria, a colony for destitute people which was founded in the year 1887 by an association of private individuals. Simonshof is a small village surrounded by 452 acres of land, and when purchased by this association was in a dilapidated condition, but it has been much improved and is now flourishing. It receives all persons from the age of fifteen upwards who are in destitute circumstances and who are willing to work. They are allowed to remain for any length of time they may desire up to one year. Last year 417 persons were received into the institution. The work is general farm work together with trucking, fruits, vineyards, all needed repairs to the village, and other things appertaining to the colony. The inmates are clothed, fed, and housed, and receive besides a compensation of from 10 to 60 pfennig per diem, which is paid to them in a lump sum upon leaving. Private charity mostly maintains the association, but it is also the recipient of assistance from the Bavarian Government as well as from the eight district governments of the Kingdom. The idea of the institution, as I understand it, is to give to depraved humanity, which is degraded to the lowest level, a new start in life. The inmates as a rule enter in that miserable condition peculiar to tramps, and many of them do not know enough about work to turn their hand over; while there they have instilled into them habits of industry, an appreciation of the benefits to them of labor, together with ambition and manly self-respect, and are sent out again into the world in good condition, well clothed, with an appreciation of cleanliness, money in their pocket, and mostly with a manly determination to win their way. The scheme has proved so successful that already another similar association is contemplated in Bavaria.

PUNISHMENT OF VAGRANTS.

It is not unusual that vagabonds and tramps are ordered by the authorities to prove, after a reasonable warning, that they have obtained employment, and if this order is not complied with and they continue to live in this community they are liable to punishment as persons having aversion to labor; oft repeated punishments for this offense authorize the authorities to expel the offender from their district and its immediate vicinity for a period not exceeding two years, and if during the duration of sentence the offender be found within the prohibited limits, a further punishment is meted out for the offense of breaking the ban.

Continual punishment for begging, tramping, and aversion to labor subjects the transgressor to a more extreme sentence under the law in the form either of two years in the workhouse or employment on some work conducive to the public good. It is thought, however, that the most potential factor in frightening tramps of this character is the workhouse.

Offending foreigners are ordered to leave the Empire.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

The manner of distributing charity as followed by the various associations which I have previously dilated upon acts quite successfully in reducing begging from door to door, and at the same time it enables the officers of those societies to have a certain supervision over this class of humanity, which undoubtedly proves of great benefit to the community at large.

While, of course, professional vagrancy has not been eliminated through the course of treatment it receives in this country, the means adopted for its curtailment have proven reasonably successful. The condition precedent, that a tramp must do some work before assistance is granted him, has in many districts diminished greatly their number, and it is, undoubtedly, a most excellent rule, that all organizations having for their object the furnishing of meals, lodgings, etc., to these wanderers should have a well regulated system of work laid out for every one to perform before receiving assistance. It makes these people finally realize that they must live by working and by working alone.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

In Bavaria, in order to contract a marriage, a certificate of permission must be obtained from the police authorities. The same can be refused when, among other things, the man or the woman has been in the previous three years punished three times for either vagrancy, begging, or showing an aversion to labor, and in each case three years must have expired from the time of their discharge from prison, etc.

Although the requirement of these certificates does prevent the marriage of paupers and people of evil reputation, it can not be said to prove of any great good, for persons of such character are not governed by the laws of morality and do not hesitate to cohabit, and the result is concubinage, and with it illegitimate offspring.

WM. J. BLACK,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nuremberg, May 15, 1892.

BREMEN.

REPORT OF CONSUL STARKLOFF.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) Every tramp, if caught, is arrested and punished with imprisonment at the workhouse or other prisons, where he is compelled to work.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) For the proper care of the poor there are in Bremen 190 almoners, who are appointed by the senate, and whose position is considered a position of honor without a salary. Their benevolent work consists as follows:

(*a*) In obtaining suitable work for physically able paupers. The proceeds of such work will be used to defray their expenses for food and clothing.

(*b*) In taking care of the sick at their homes, or their transmittal to a hospital.

(*c*) In distributing necessary clothing (as a rule to such persons only who are inmates of poorhouses or other charitable institutions).

(*d*) In distributing provisions or meals from the souphouses, and distributing fuel in winter time.

(*e*) In furnishing tools or indispensible household articles. These tools or household articles remain, however, the property of the almonry.

(*f*) In procuring admittance to poorhouses, orphan asylums, house for the aged, house of correction, house of education, or hospitals.

(*g*) In procuring a home for children in respectable families or children's asylums.

(*h*) In advancing small sums of money to relieve deserving people from momentary embarrassment.

(*i*) In granting certain allowances of money to physically unable people; also, for children raised in private families.

(*k*) In paying the expenses of a funeral.

(3) Begging is punished with imprisonment.

(*a*) Beggars, or persons who cause children or other people under their control to beg; also, such persons as fail to prevent children or other persons under their control from begging.

(*b*) Persons who are addicted to gambling, drinking, and loafing to such an extent as to become a public burden and unable to take care of those who naturally rely upon them for a living.

(*c*) Prostitutes who fail to comply with the rules of the police or the sanitary commission.

(*d*) A person receiving alms and refusing to do labor for which he is fitted and which he is requested to do by the proper authorities.

(e) A person finding himself out of work or employment and failing to exert himself to find other work or employment within a reasonable time.

All imprisoned persons have to do a certain kind of work designated to them, either within the prison or separated from free laborers outside the prison.

In cases of repetition of the offense for which they have been punished, an imprisonment at the workhouse can be extended from one to two years.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) In Bremen there exists a private association against begging. This association assists people in need to prevent them from begging. Travelers applying to said association receive an order for a supper, a night's lodging, and a dinner. Every person caught begging is imprisoned in the house of correction or in the workhouse for a term of four months up to two years, where they have to do the kind of work or labor to which they are best adapted. They have to obey orders strictly, but there is nothing humiliating in the treatment they receive; but, on the contrary, it is tending toward the elevation of their self-respect. A part of their earnings is reserved and paid to them when leaving the institution. About 25 per cent of these beggars remain incorrigible and have to be repeatedly punished and imprisoned, while the rest of them become self-supporting members of society.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) The indiscriminate distribution of public and private charities has been a failure. It is quite necessary that public and private almoners act in coöperation. They must keep themselves advised as to the persons and as to the method of their support rendered.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(6) The system of extending public charities at the expense of communities or states, assisted by private benevolent associations, seems to be the best method under the present existing political and economical conditions of Germany.

The statistics show that about 75 per cent of the recipients of such charities become ultimately good members of society, are honest and deserving people, who are by circumstances beyond their control unable to support themselves or families for the time being. These people will become self-supporting as soon as the obstacles disabling them are removed. About 15 per cent of the recipients are aged people, who will never more be able to support themselves. Ten per cent of the recipients are incorrigible, and with some of them it almost seems hereditary, as their names appear on the books of the almoners from generation to generation.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) There exists no law preventing the intermarriage of paupers. The law heretofore existing for its prevention has proved a failure, and has therefore been revoked.

HUGO M. STARKLOFF,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bremen, May 17, 1892.

COLOGNE.

BY CONSUL WAMER.

(1) Vagrancy is forbidden by law. Everyone who roams aimlessly about the country, without being able to show any means of existence, is regarded as a vagrant. The vagrant can be committed to a public workhouse.

(2) To aid those without means is a matter pertaining to the commune in which the beggar legally belongs. If the commune can not be ascertained, then the aid becomes a matter of the province. The distribution of alms is managed by what is here known as the Armenpfleger; that is, a number of persons, on an average 12, formed into a committee and presided over by a chairman, have a certain district in which they look after the wants of the poor and decide upon what assistance they should receive, either in money or otherwise. In the city of Cologne there are 72 such districts, each of which has an average of about $240 a year at its disposal for distribution to the poor. The committees are under the control of a delegation appointed by the municipality for the poor.

(3) Begging is prohibited by law. There are here private societies against begging, but the city does nothing against begging, for it, in its obligation to aid the poor, can not officially recognize the necessity to beg. Begging is punishable by confinement.

(4) As to efforts for converting "beggars" and "tramps" into self-supporting members of society, the city does nothing in this direction. There are some private societies whose aim is to reform beggars; but that which has been accomplished in this direction is of a doubtful nature.

(5) Alms are distributed by the public as well as by most of the private societies, only after a very careful examination has been made into the nature of the case. The necessary coöperation of these two classes of almsgivers could, in the interest of the distribution of the alms, be a better one. I am informed that the alms given by the religious orders often exceed that which is absolutely necessary and frequently show a want of judgment.

(6) It is not the aim of the public charitable societies to prevent pauperism or to make persons or families who have fallen into poverty self-sustaining. When the condition of the one aided has improved, after being examined by the chairman of the commission for the poor, then the aid ceases and the name of the one aided disappears from the lists. Private societies can act more freely in reference to preventing poverty and with the intention of getting rid of pauperism by proper means. The Wohlthäthigkeitsverein here accomplishes a very good work. This is a charitable society, of which householders, by paying a small sum yearly—three marks is the lowest limit, though the size of the gift is left to the donor—become members and receive a small porcelain plate indicating this fact. This plate is put upon the front door and is intended to keep beggars away; beggars, however, do not pay much attention to it.

(7) No efforts are made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers. The law knows no restrictions in this respect.

WM. D. WAMER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cologne, May 11, 1892.

CREFELD.

REPORT BY CONSUL BLAKE.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

By a general Prussian law, all cities are required to appoint a committee, whose duties are to have general supervision of the poor. Each city or community enacts its own special laws for the government of the same.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

An ordinance of the city of Crefeld provides that a committee of nine members shall constitute and be called the "city administration of the poor." The mayor of the city presides at all meetings of this committee, which has full care and control of the poor of the city and has charge of the city hospital. Said committee is assisted by a suitable number of directors and subdirectors. This city is divided into thirty-two districts, and these districts are divided into four hundred and forty-eight subdistricts. The city directors and subdirectors are appointed by the city council for the period of three years and all male citizens who have the right of suffrage are obliged to accept and serve as directors or subdirectors. Each director is assigned to a district which is clearly defined by streets and the number of each house, these districts being further divided among subdirectors. The subdirectors have regular meetings on the second and fourth Tuesdays of each

month. All claims for support must be addressed to the subdirectors of the district in which he or she may reside.

It is the duty of the subdirectors to obtain full and detailed accounts of the actual condition of the applicant by personal inquiry and examination. Should the applicant be considered deserving and entitled to relief the subdirectors should render such assistance as would be necessary for present relief. Such cases must be reported at the next regular meeting, giving the name of applicant, street, and number of residence. The rules which govern the distribution of alms and the amount to be given are made by the district directors, by and with the approval of the "city administration of the poor." The directors of all districts hold their regular meetings on the first Monday of each month, for the purpose of making and receiving reports from each individual director, and from the subdirectors; also transacting such other business as may properly come before them. The "city administration of the poor" meet with them. All donations, whether consisting of money, orders for coal, groceries, clothing, etc., which may be allowed upon the various calls for aid in the subdistricts, are sent to the directors of each district every two weeks for distribution. After the distribution a full report is made out by the subdirectors of all disbursements.

DUTIES OF THE "CITY ADMINISTRATION OF THE POOR."

First. It must make particular inquiry into the individual circumstances and condition of the poor and the causes of their poverty.

Second. It makes provision for the employment of the deserving poor.

Third. It makes the estimate of money required to provide and supply all proper demands for aid, this estimate being submitted to the city council for approval.

Fourth. It audits all accounts for distribution of alms, making a full report annually of the same to the city council. The poor who are unable to labor are supplied with the necessary comforts of life, provided that none of their relations are able to do so. Every poor person, male or female, is obliged to do some manual labor, under penalty of arrest, unless physically disabled. Weekly payments in money are allowed to those who are not able to labor, in the following sums, to wit:

For house rent.

	Cents.
One person per week	36
Two persons per week	44
Three to five persons per week	54
Six and more persons per week	64

For provisions.

	Cents.
One person per week, head of family, man or wife	44
Every child per week	2
Persons over 60 years	

In addition to the above allowances for house rent and provisions, orders for coal are allowed under the immediate direction of the directors. Children attending school are furnished with one suit of clothes each year, also with school books. All taxes are remitted to the very poor except taxes for state purposes. These can only be remitted upon application to the Regierungs president at Düsseldorf. The directors, accompanied by the subdirectors, must in person visit the poor who receive assistance and thoroughly acquaint themselves with their actual condition. Whenever the person who has been receiving alms moves to another district a report of the same must be made at once to the subdirectors where the new residence is, giving the name of the person or persons and a full history of their case. The poor must be visited every two weeks and a report of their condition made as to their condition morally and otherwise. Teachers in the schools must take the names of all children who receive assistance from the city and report the names of their parents and their residence. A careful examination of every applicant for alms is made by the directors, and, should it appear that the person so applying is not an actual resident of the city, the case is referred to the authorities where he does actually reside, and they are obliged by law to provide and care for such and to pay for such supplies as have been furnished. On the first of April of each year the condition of all the poor in the city is carefully inquired into by the said officials, and a full report is made to the "city administration of the poor," giving the names of each person, place of residence, and all circumstances relating to each case.

Begging is really not allowed, but if any are found pursuing this course they are fined by the police authorities.

Professional begging is not allowed. All beggars and tramps are arrested.

All alms are given out under the immediate supervision of the proper city officials.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

The Elberfeld system has proved to be the best system for distribution of public and private charities, looking to the elevation of the recipients of such charities to the condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence, and their ultimate rehabilitations as good members of society.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

So far as I am informed no efforts in a legal way have been made to prevent marriages of paupers.

EVANS BLAKE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Crefeld, December 1, 1892.

DUSSELDORF.

REPORT BY CONSUL PARTELLO.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) The penal code of the German Empire (Deutsches Strafgesetzbuch) provides as follows on this point:

All persons who, having lost their lodging or residence, do not acquire a new one within a certain limited time specified by competent authority, and, further, all persons who are arrested as vagrants or tramps, shall be condemned to imprisonment in a public workhouse for two years, or to be kept under confinement for that period, and employed on public works.

In case the vagrant or tramp be a foreigner he is condemned to exile from the country, and severely punished should he return.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) In respect to this question, under which head the general care of the poor, providing for the sick and helpless, widows and orphans, etc., properly belongs, the institutions of this class in Germany are second to none in the world. It would cover considerable time and space to give details under this head. In brief, it may be stated that widows with young children, when they are poor and helpless, are paid a regular weekly sum from the city treasury, small, but sufficient to prevent want. One of the Beigeordneten, or assistant mayors, is chairman of a charity committee of the city, with numerous aids on the part of city police, and other officials, as subcommittees. All cases reported are carefully examined into, and relief given in the form of money and the necessities of life—if necessary, admission to the city charitable institutions. Orphan asylums and poorhouses are under city control, all regulated by law, and for the needy and worthy genteel a large and very fine building has recently been completed in this city at considerable cost, with every convenience, furnishing a comfortable and excellent home for all those who may be admitted.

The system of charities is therefore most perfect and well managed in this country, as well as the public hospitals, which are models of excellence.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) Begging is seen only to a limited extent in this country. It is regulated by law and punished under the penal code of the German Empire, the paragraph of the law reading about as follows:

All persons who beg or who encourage the same by sending children out to beg, or do not prevent such act on the part of persons under their control, shall be punished by imprisonment.

For the purpose of suppressing begging on the part of wanderers who may be without means, certain stations are located throughout the

large cities where, for an equivalent in labor in wood-cutting or other forms of work, lodging and meals are furnished. Certain unions are established for the support and protection of such stations, assisted by the public authorities, and any deficiency not covered by the labor thus performed is met by the union.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) To convert beggers and tramps into self-supporting members of society, great efforts are being made by the so-called workmen's colonies, or Unions-Arbeiter-Colonien. These societies, which have lately been established by private charity and assisted by the public authorities, have attained considerable success. One of the most important of such colonies is situated in Westphalia, near Bielefeld, on the main road from Cologne to Berlin.

These colonies not only take up and interest themselves in men who have both mentally and physically degenerated, but also those who may be dismissed from prisons and houses of correction, and the effort is made to reclaim them by moral and religious influences by severe rules in the direction of an orderly and industrious life, and to open to them the way of selfdependence and the earning of their own livelihood, and, finally, in assisting them to obtain permanent employment.

The rules of the colonies are such that only persons of really good intention remain for any length of time to reap the benefits, while those fearing labor and who really have no intention of doing better, leave soon after having been received.

The work to be done by the inmates is of various kinds, principally tilling the land, making roads, etc.

The general impression is not allowed that the labor is an assistance to the state, or that all unemployed can find work, but labor is offered and accepted as a charitable gift.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) So to speak, there is no indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities. The charities of the city are under the control of regular city officials, who extend aid to all those that are really needy, each case being examined into by the police, and the citizen being heavily taxed for the support of the city and its institutions will invariably send all applicants for charity to the proper department of the city and not allow himself to be disturbed by such appeal unless it may be in some special case where he or his family are personally interested.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEM.

(6) The result from the giving of public and private charity is, that really poor persons are assisted as far as possible; with respect to the distribution of alms, some value is placed upon the personal sense of

honor. Persons capable of working, when unemployed, do not alwa receive assistance in money, except as an equivalent for labor.

The arrangement and maintenance of stations where food and shelt are given as an equivalent for labor have nearly done away with stre begging.

D. J. PARTELLO,
Consul

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Dusseldorf, August 1, 1892.

FÜRTH.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT DUNLAP.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

Vagrants of the "tramp" (or any other) class are rare in Bavaria, fo the reason that the police regulations for the government of transient are yet more strictly enforced than in many other portions of the Empir The regulation requiring every transient to be reported to the "res dents' bureau" within three days, under penalty of a fine, both to th individual as well as to the person in whose domicile he lives, is by r means a dead letter, and is seldom evaded. There doubtless do occu cases where the person interested desires to keep his movements secre but it is impossible for a person to remain long in a Bavarian city wit out the police finding him out. To prevent indiscriminate vagranc every workman traveling in search of work, or pretending so to d must be provided with a pass book, in which is printed all the law bearing upon the duties and responsibilities of employer and employe in the particular trade or employment in which the bearer works, a well as his name, date of birth, and birthplace, when he entered serv ice, etc. In this book are also blank pages where the employer enter the date of beginning service and the date of leaving it, together with such remarks as to the employé's capacity, ability, etc., as he may see fit, making, as it were, a complete record or encyclopedia of the man's whole life. Within three days of entering service this book must be taken to the "residents' bureau," where a record is made and kept. On leaving the service of one person and entering that of another, in the same city, this book must again be presented and receive a municipal stamp across the last recommendation, and again a record is made so that the transaction is complete.

On the arrival of a person in a place his first duty is to report to the police station with his book, where a record is made and he is give permission to seek work. It will be seen from the foregoing that i is exceedingly difficult to "tramp it" in Bavaria, yet such people d

exist and in considerable numbers. They are the same indolent, dirty, greasy fellows that exist in such numbers in the United States, and have the same manners and characteristics. On the arrival of a tramp in Fürth he is arrested as soon as discovered. He is, of course, without any pass book, a fact that at once makes him a criminal and for which he is fined and imprisoned to a less or greater degree, according to his supposed deserts. In Fürth he is compelled to labor in prison and is given bread and water for subsistence, a course of treatment which soon cures him of any desire to prolong his stay. If he is a stranger and the prison is full, he may be taken to the city limits and sent on his way to the next town. In case he becomes permanently disabled and likely to require to be kept in the poorhouse, he is sent to his birthplace or where his citizenship exists, if he has any, one or the other of which places must support him. The authorities are agreed that no scheme yet invented has proved infallible to keep the tramp away; even the strict supervision of the police can not prevent it.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

Alms are usually distributed by an agent of the combined societies for the amelioration of the poor, and who, in Fürth, has his office in the police station, where he keeps a kind of intelligence office, to which people in want of workmen of any kind send requests, or where the unemployed go to look for situations. A moneyless laborer is given lodging and a sum equal to 17 cents per day, with which to purchase food, and his visit may be extended in accordance with circumstances. If he seeks work in a branch overfilled he is told to leave, and receives no more aid. If he begs he is arrested, if discovered. In certain cases he may be paid a small sum, varying from 10 to 75 cents, to assist him to the next town. Local applicants for charity make their needs known to the same person, who can, by applying to the "residents' bureau," find out all about the applicant without going to his dwelling.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

Begging is punished by imprisonment, but no plan has been found to prevent it entirely. They are arrested if caught in the act by an officer, but those asked for alms are usually too good-natured to send for an officer.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

No efforts to make beggars and tramps self-supporting have as yet been put into successful operation, it being the opinion of the officials that all such efforts would be futile, for when once the habit of begging has been formed it is hard to eradicate.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

The giving of alms, either by societies or privately, is regarded as being an evil and provocative of an increase of the number of applicants. If one family is assisted, no matter in how small a measure, the neighbors think they are equally entitled to aid. Aside from relieving the needs of the extreme aged, the infirm, the sick, and the crippled, the officials are of the opinion that almsgiving is an incentive to mendicancy, but they have nothing to offer as a substitute.

There are in this city many societies whose object it is to relieve the needy and distressed. Some confine their donations to a certain class of workmen, some to certain faiths, and some give to all. The consensus of opinion, however, is that so soon as a person has been assisted, especially if of the lower classes, that the society will be called upon with regularity, no matter what the necessities of the case are. There seems to be an entire absence of pride, and anything got from a society or individual is regarded as so much clear gain, but just how to alter the result is a question much discussed, but never settled.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

Paupers in poorhouses are not permitted to marry; neither is any one allowed to marry, no matter who, unless he first satisfies the authorities that he has either private means, a business, trade, or employment such as will give reasonable assurance of his being able to support a family. It may, however, be said that this excellent regulation for the prevention of marriage among people who are either paupers, or liable to become such, does not prevent the increase of that class; for the published statistics show that nearly or quite 20 per cent of the births are illegitimate, which, considering that all such are among the lower or laboring classes, is a very large per cent, could they be separated, and goes to show that pauperism is rather on the increase, or at least liable to increase, from that source. It is, however, right to state that not all illegitimate children become paupers, for in many cases the parents rely upon some good luck to provide the means for marriage, which is later consummated.

H. J. DUNLAP,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Fürth, March 19, 1892.

GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL WINTER, OF MANNHEIM.

CONTROLLING VAGRANCY.

Vagrancy is controlled by what is termed the service of security. In large cities like Mannheim there is a special police corps provided. For the country districts a corps of gens d'armes, numbering about 300 in the Grand Duchy of Baden, are in active service. The gens d'armes are drawn from the regular army, and have been advanced to the rank of sergeant and wear a military uniform, each having a prescribed district to guard, often extending from one village to another, and it is their duty to arrest any vagrant or tramp in their patrolling district. The first offense of vagrancy is punishable with two weeks' imprisonment; repeated offenses may be punished with six months' imprisonment in a police workhouse.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

The municipal government of Mannheim has a department called a committee of the poor, whose duty consists in alleviating the poor and those in temporary distress. All the poor expecting support must apply to this commission. This department becomes thoroughly acquainted with the exact condition, personal history, worthiness or unworthiness, of the various applicants for public charity, and act accordingly. This committee endeavors to distribute alms in such a way as to work in harmony with private charities. The number of needy poor are under perfect control, and at the same time those will be assisted who, from feelings of pride or shame, will not make known their suffering. Such poor receiving support for a certain length of time must report to the commissary of the precinct after three months, who will attest that the same circumstances demanding support are either still existing, or, if they have improved, that the support may be canceled, or given only partly. The mode of support granted by the committee of the poor consists in furnishing food, clothing, contributions towards paying rent, fuel in winter, money for educating poor children, and taking care of sick persons. Children of indigent parents, and orphans without relatives or friends, are properly taken care of, being placed in an orphan asylum or in private families.

Poor people, having become sick, may consult the physician of the poor, free of charge, and also receive their medicines and remedies gratis; and in cases where it is deemed necessary, they will be received in the city hospital, which is under the supervision of the committee of the poor.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

Professional beggars are punished with imprisonment; for the first offense the punishment is two weeks in the workhouse; repeated offenses is followed by imprisonment for a period of six months. They are placed on the plainest food and required to labor to the full extent of their ability. In the city of Mannheim the most of the street cleaning is performed by this class of labor, thus saving a considerable item of expense to the municipal government.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

There is a society against house and street begging, or rather for the suppression of vagrancy. This society extends throughout Baden, and numbers nearly 3,000 members. The fees for membership amounts to 3 marks per year (being 72 cents). The purpose of the society is to give some support to men, mechanics or workmen, traveling from one place to another in search of work. This society aids these classes of people in getting work, and supplies them with a meal or a night's lodging free of charge. This society was established in 1881, and undoubtedly its efforts and influence have been very beneficial in helping to suppress begging and vagrancy.

Efforts are being made to convert beggars and tramps into self-supporting members of society, but the question in all countries is a difficult one to solve. Various efforts are being made in this direction. There are police stations over the country in which tramps are received for the night and employment found for them. There is an asylum or workhouse sustained by private subscription. The purpose of this workhouse is to receive persons who have served a term in prison, and who find it very difficult to obtain employment. Others also out of employment, and willing to work, will be received for a time. These various efforts to render beggars and roving people self-supporting members of society are certainly meeting with considerable success in the Grand Duchy of Baden.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

The evil effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of charities could be seen clearly some twenty years ago. At that time a great many workmen and mechanics would travel on foot from village to village, and according to the old custom they had the privilege to call on the masters of their trades for temporary support, and could almost demand assistance from the well-to-do people of the country and villages, and in this way begging was fostered and clothed with some degree of respectability, and the result was a constantly increasing number of beggars and tramps.

The best system of the distribution of public and private charities, looking at the same time to the elevation of the recipients of such chari-

ties to the condition of self-supporting, respectable members of society, is undoubtedly for private and philanthropic societies to coöperate with the municipal authorities; this system has worked well in Mannheim and in the State of Baden, and the result is that, notwithstanding the increase of population, the number of beggars and tramps is decreasing.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

There is no systematized effort to prevent the intermarriages of paupers.

JNO. F. WINTER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Mannheim, April 15, 1892.

GRAND DUCHY OF HESSE.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT SMITH, OF MAYENCE.

In response to the circular instruction of the Department of February 10, on the subject of public charities and vagrancy in foreign countries, I have to make the following report with respect to the Grand Duchy of Hesse, based on information kindly furnished me by the Government thereof:

REGULATING VAGRANCY.

The only control of tramps that may be said to take place, apart from the treatment of them mentioned in division *b* of reply to interrogatory 4, is the registering at the offices of the state attorneys and police of the names of all persons convicted of tramping (see also answer to interrogatory 3).

DISTRIBUTION OF CHARITY.

The poor are relieved by public and private benevolence, in the latter being included the aid extended by churches and religious bodies to needy members, as well as the relief afforded by institutions maintained by the generosity of the charitable.

Public charity.

(1) Public care of the indigent in Hesse is regulated by a law of the German Empire, passed June 6, 1870, and an act supplementary thereto of the Grand Duchy of Hesse, of July 14, 1871. These laws are based upon the principle that the extension of relief to the poor is an obligation resting upon the state, which, however, is not rendered by the state itself or its immediate officers, but by the local communes, to which the duty of looking after the poor has been transferred. These

communes for the purposes of poor relief are denominated Armenverbände and have been erected into such on the principle that the obligation to grant assistance in case of need should be regarded as a consequence of economical services or benefits, in the form of labor or otherwise, received from the applicant for relief, and that the aid obtained should accordingly come from that commune or Armenverbände in which the necessitous individual had been at work for some time previous. This right to relief from a particular commune is acquired by two years' residence within the said commune after the attainment of one's 24th year, by marriage in the case of women, the wife's commune being that of the husband, and by birth, offspring up to the completion of the 26th year being dependent for relief upon the place of domicile of their parents. Where the place of charging the relief can not be fixed, the place or district in which the pauper happens to be has to furnish it. Such relief is incumbent not on the commune, but on the districts, various communes forming a district, and these districts are known as Landarmenverbände, being more comprehensive than Verbände of the communes, which are termed Ortsarmenverbände.

According to law every necessitous German subject has a claim as a pauper upon the place of his legal domicile to shelter, food, care in case of sickness, and decent burial. Every commune forms, for this purpose, an Ortsarmenverband, and its officials are charged with the management of its poor affairs as a communal obligation. Small strips of territory, not belonging to any commune, constitute in themselves an Ortsarmenverband or can attach themselves by agreement to some other Ortsarmenverband. The cost of the care of the poor in localities not appertaining to a commune must be borne by their inhabitants, and if the locality does not possess corporate government the state will prescribe the method of assessing there the poor-law fund, etc.

All the Ortsarmenverbände situated in one district form together a Landarmenverband and these Landarmenverbände in Hesse have their affairs superintended by the district councilor, who selects three persons as a committee to represent him in all matters respecting the relief of the poor, to whom they render account from time to time. The expenses incurred by these Landarmenverbände are borne by the district treasury. When persons temporarily fall to their care, outside of the commune to which they belong, they are empowered to turn the necessitous person over to the proper commune, with a claim for reimbursement for expenses incurred in his care. On the other hand, if a commune within the territory of a Landarmenverband is unable to meet the demand made upon it by its pauper population the Landarmenverband will be directed by higher government authority to supply it with aid, either in money or by placing almshouses at its disposal or otherwise.

Contentions between Armenverbände throughout the Empire are decided by judicial authority.

ʼeigners living here, if their presence in the country has not been
d to by the authorities thereof, receive the same treatment as
ı respect to poor relief.

ner in which relief to the poor is granted in Hesse is regu-
ʼnisterial decree whose chief points are:

umunes in which no specific poor board exists the burgo-
ʼunct is required to make up at least quarterly, though
ʼnthly, a list of the necessitous poor in his commune
ount and kind of relief each receives weekly, and
at the expenditure for such relief does not exceed the
money on hand for the purpose.

There must always be a reserve fund on hand sufficient to meet any sudden and transient emergency.

(*c*) The list in question or the information that no relief has been given is then to be laid before the church authorities of his commune for their comment.

(*d*) Are the burgomaster and the clergy of his commune in agreement the list is sent to the proper accounting officer for adjustment. Are they in disagreement the burgomaster has to submit the question or questions in dispute to superior official authority.

(*e*) It is incumbent upon the burgomaster to see that the proper superintendence and control in the grant of poor relief are maintained. The clergy are not to be allowed to distribute the alms, except in cases where benevolent bequests, from which they are derived, stipulate this method of distribution.

(*f*) In a case of unusual demand for relief, as, for instance, complete maintenance of a pauper in consequence of imbecility, utter incapacity to work, accident, etc., a contract for the care of the unfortunate is at once entered into, in the conclusion of which the local board and clergy should have a say. The service to be performed is not allowed to be put up to the lowest bidder, as this manner of letting a contract is strictly forbidden.

(*g*) The communes are expected, so far as able, to provide medical treatment for their sick paupers.

(*h*) When a sick pauper receives medical treatment, the burgomaster of his commune has to write upon the first prescription given by an official doctor the word "poor" or "unable to pay," or in an exceptional case a certificate can be granted whose express purpose shall be to authorize the recipient to receive medicine from the apothecary designated. The medicine furnished the apothecary charges to the commune or poor fund.

In the larger towns there are special regulations regarding the poor. Those of Darmstadt, a city of 56,000 inhabitants and the capital of the Grand Duchy of Hesse, give an idea of the regulations prevailing in other cities of Hesse and will be found contained in a pamphlet in German of 47 pages of printed matter herewith transmitted, marked

Inclosure 1, entitled "Armenordnung für die Stadt Darmstadt und Instruction für die Armenpfleger, Bezirks-Vorsteher und Bezirks-Versammlungen vom 10. Februar, 1876." To translate this publication myself, I have not sufficient time at command.

At Mayence, population 72,000, the city is officially divided into fourteen districts for purposes of public relief of the poor.

Private relief.

(2) Private relief of the poor is uncontrolled by the state and subject to no limitations, aside from the penalties imposed by law upon begging. The pauper poor, however, in Germany are so well looked after by the state that there is not much for private enterprise to busy itself with.

The extension of relief by benevolent associations or religious bodies or from individual bequests is governed by the constitutions and regulations of such bodies and the provisions of the bequests made. There is generally in every large city an Armenverein (poor union) whose members pay a small amount annually into the society's treasury for the relief of the poor of their city, and bind themselves not to give relief to beggars at the door or on the street. They are accustomed to put on their doors or houses in a conspicuous place a small oval iron plate furnished by the union, of like uniformity throughout Germany, I believe, with the simple word Armenverein (poor union) cast on it, as an indication to beggars that it is no use to apply where it appears for food or relief. In German cities this little iron plate, white in color, with Armenverein, in raised black letters upon it, may be seen on house after house.

The constitution of the Armenverein or general union at Darmstadt, for the relief and prevention of poverty and beggary, reads in substance as follows:

(*a*) The object of the association or union is to shield needy citizens of Darmstadt from poverty, relieve the indigent poor, and discourage begging in the street and at house doors.

(*b*) It seeks to accomplish its object by giving or lending money, obtaining employment, imparting advice, and binding its members not to give alms to house or street beggars.

(*c*) The funds of the union are derived from the voluntary contributions of its members and gifts made to it.

(*d*) A member of the union is every inhabitant of Darmstadt of age, who pays at least 2 marks (47 cents) a year into its treasury, and agrees not to help house or street beggars.

(*e*) Once a year, in April or May, there is a general meeting of the union for hearing reports and electing officers. Special meetings can be called at any time by the board of directors of the union when they consider it advisable or when requested by one-twentieth of the members of the union.

(*f*) The board of directors consists of twenty-four members, elected by the members of the union at a general meeting, for whom all members regardless of sex have

a right to vote. Eligible to office are all members who declare themselves ready to work for the union. The directors constituting the board are elected for three years one-third being chosen each year. All are eligible to reëlection.

(*g*) These directors, who choose a presiding officer and alternate from their midst, determine the application to be made of the union's funds. They also select the treasurer and fix the size of his bond and the amount of compensation he is to receive for his labor, as well as appoint such employés of the union as have to be taken on pay, and name, from among the members of the union who voluntarily offer their gratuitous services, such as are to do active work and prescribe their functions. The presiding officer, or his adjunct, represents the union in all judicial and extra-judicial matters.

(*h*) Requests for relief by the needy can be made by them in person to the union or to one of the officers of the union through one of its members. The circumstances of the applicant are then inquired into by one of the active members of the union, and a report thereon made in writing to the board of directors at its next meeting, when the person making the report is expected to support it by verbal explanations. In pressing cases preliminary help can be rendered by three members of the board of directors agreeing to the same upon their responsibility until the entire board can pass upon the case.

(*i*) The resolutions of the board of directors are determined by a majority vote, and in the case of a tie the presiding officer decides the question. A quorum is constituted when all the members of the board have been notified of a meeting and one-half of them attend. One meeting a week is regularly held.

(*j*) All bills of the treasurer on the funds of the union have to be countersigned by the president of the board of directors or the vice-president and one of the members of the board. The accounts are examined by certain members of the union, chosen annually for the purpose, who make a report to the union.

The names of persons relieved and contributions of members are not published. These matters are kept strictly private by those to whose knowledge they have to come in the execution of the affairs of the union.

(*k*) The board of directors are empowered to enter into arrangements with other benevolent associations or institutions as to the conditions under which they will turn over the whole or part of their means to the union for outlay, or to provide in what way the union will authorize other benevolent associations or institutions to perform certain of its functions.

(*l*) Notice of an intention to propose an amendment of the constitution of the union has to be given to the president of the board of directors fourteen days before the general meeting in which it is to be discussed. An amendment of the constitution is permissible only when three-fourths of the members present vote therefor.

(*m*) The union can be dissolved when it is voted for by three-fourths of the members present at a general meeting called by public announcement twice made with a statement of the object of the call. The same meeting shall decide, by a majority vote, what disposition shall be made of the union's assets, in so far as not already provided for, but its assets can only be devoted to benevolent objects at Darmstadt.

(*n*) As soon as the union, by virtue of its constitutional provisions, loses its legal status as a corporation, only with approval of the Grand Duke of Hesse can an amendment of them take place.

I also transmit as inclosure the constitution in the German language of a similar union at Giessen, a town of 20,000 inhabitants, in Upper Hesse, which is somewhat fuller than that of the union at Darmstadt.

These associations or Armenverein exist not only in the large towns and cities, but oftentimes in the small towns.

3. SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

According to paragraph 361 of the Imperial penal code of Germany, every person convicted of vagrancy is subject to penal confinement up to six weeks, as is also every person convicted of begging or inducing children to beg, or of failing to withhold members of his household from begging, or of giving himself up to gambling, drink, or idleness to such an extent as to reach a condition requiring for himself or for those dependent upon him the extension of charity by the authorities. Tramps and persons repeatedly convicted of begging can, moreover, according to paragraph 362 of the criminal code of the Empire, be sent by the police to a so-called Arbeits Haus (workhouse) for any period up to two years, unless physically unfit to perform the lightest kind of house, garden, and field work. For youthful persons under 18 years of age there is a special department in the workhouse at Dieburg, in Hesse. The sentence to the workhouse is six months on the first incarceration, and an increased period for each subsequent reference thither until the full limit of two years is reached, which can never be exceeded at any one sentence. Previous behavior and the amount of trouble given the police has, of course, due weight in determining the measure of the penalty meted out to offenders.

The Grand Duchy of Hesse has its chief workhouse at Dieburg, near Darmstadt, which is capable of containing 180 to 200 prisoners, and smaller similar workhouses at Worms and Giessen. The inmates of these workhouses are kept at hard labor, mostly of an industrial character, though they are used also on outside agricultural work.

At the instance, in 1882, of the chancelor of the Empire, a statistical compilation was made, in the different states of Germany, of the number of beggars and tramps sentenced within their limits, since 1876, under the Imperial criminal code, which statistics have since been regularly published. As said above, there are two paragraphs on this subject, 361 and 362, the former providing confinement up to six weeks for vagrancy or begging, and the latter incarceration not exceeding two years in a workhouse at hard labor for repeated commissions of the same offense after a conviction, or for begging with threats of violence.

For the whole of Germany the convictions from 1877 to 1884 under paragraph 361 of the criminal code prescribing common imprisonment up to six weeks were as follows:

States.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1877 to 1884.	Average annual rate per 10,000 inhabitants, census of 1880.
Prussia	77,712	92,685	115,841	119,269	132,123	118,245	101,128	76,426	833,429	33.2
Bavaria	57,482	81,582	78,254	83,807	84,299	72,960	62,897	60,264	581,545	137.6
Saxony	25,086	31,112	30,288	22,337	19,377	18,722	18,077	17,706	182,705	76.8
Wurtemberg	19,597	23,534	30,968	31,180	15,366	15,562	20,692	18,096	174,995	111.0
Baden	11,584	15,920	18,437	20,866	17,794	12,105	9,890	6,952	113,548	90.4
Hesse	4,089	5,629	8,217	9,828	10,975	9,800	6,247	4,007	58,790	78.5
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	3,868	5,406	7,497	8,326	13,131	8,119	5,762	5,096	57,205	123.9
Saxe-Weimar	1,390	1,462	1,470	1,560	2,163	1,715	1,101	803	11,664	47.1
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	917	681	594	712	663	650	739	867	5,823	72.6
Oldenburg	1,380	2,148	3,497	2,604	2,170	1,921	1,563	1,507	16,790	62.2
Brunswick	2,718	2,511	2,584	1,700	1,837	1,542	1,136	1,139	15,167	54.3
Saxe-Meiningen	362	476	477	611	692	511	476	417	4,022	24.3
Saxe-Altenburg	1,210	1,489	1,185	1,044	1,561	1,021	770	667	8,947	72.1
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	765	957	1,141	1,365	1,175	656	828	630	7,517	48.3
Anhalt	660	455	468	821	627	549	467	355	4,402	23.7
Schwarzburg-Rudolstodt	501	604	565	509	766	650	625	607	4,827	75.1
Schwarzburg-Sandershausen	243	261	217	228	191	184	187	125	1,636	28.8
Waldeck	194	201	197	145	179	127	73	81	1,197	26.5
Reuss, Elder Line	203	144	236	348	307	295	211	209	1,953	48.1
Reuss, Junger Line	15	14	7	15	18	243	259	408	979	12.1
Schaumburg-Lippe	357	514	320	362	423	372	214	181	2,743	96.9
Lippe	507	527	522	771	752	520	279	241	4,119	42.8
Lubeck	656	936	1,347	159	416	514	311	209	4,558	89.6
Bremen	159	592	547	185	286	260	152	157	2,338	18.6
Hamburg	3,136	4,546	4,636	3,970	3,987	3,990	3,293	2,382	29,940	82.5
Alsace-Lorraine	4,723	6,132	7,324	7,826	7,983	6,807	5,096	4,046	49,937	39.8
German Empire	219,514	280,518	316,846	320,548	319,259	278,040	242,473	203,578	2,180,776	60.3

Everywhere there was an increase, it will be noticed, of convictions until 1881, and then a decrease. This is said to be due to industrial changes, and to remedial effects described below.

4. REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

This question seems to refer chiefly to wandering beggars, generally known as "tramps" in the United States. Of beggars having a fixed place of abode or stopping for some length of time at a particular place who seek to obtain a living wholly or partly by begging, there are not a great number in Hesse. They are for the most part met with only in the large towns and cities, and a beneficent influence is sought to be exercised over them by the municipal and private relief adverted to in the answer to inquiry 2.

In regard to wandering beggars and regular tramps it is to be said that an effort is made in the workhouses to instill into them a love of work and bring them back to an industrious orderly life, but the success met with in this direction can not be termed great, the reason probably being that those who get there are too confirmed in a lazy vagrant life to be reformed. It has therefore been the endeavor of the authorities in Germany since 1882, when a remarkable increase of the number of

wandering beggars was observed throughout the Empire, to distinguish the well-disposed wandering beggar, oftentimes a workman out of work, from the confirmed tramp and to preserve the former from further deterioration. This they have made their special duty, and to save the redeemable have established what are designated as Arbeiterkolonien (workmen's colonies) and Naturalverpflegungsstationen (aid stations or rather stations for aid by natural method) Arbeiterkolonien or workmen's colonies.

(*a*) The Arbeiterkolonien are mostly agricultural in character, consisting of areas of farm land of a certain size where applicants for food and shelter are taken at all seasons of the year upon rendering set work in return, and an effort thereby made to hold them to a fixed methodical mode of work and life, and preserve them from becoming habituated to a roving form of life and from the use of strong drink, to which tramps are generally sadly addicted. By the payment of some wages to the colonist, as a person taken at one of these asylums is called, and furnishing him with clothing, as well as finding an opportunity for work for him, his return to a regular mode of life is facilitated. The Kolonien are based on the model of an institution established in 1882 by Rev. Mr. von Bodelschwingh at Bielefeld, and only voluntary applicants are received at them, and of these such are refused as have already been at an Arbeiterkolonie and can not show that it is no fault of their own that they are again without work. In this way habitual tramps are kept off and the Arbeiterkolonien made asylums only for those who have the set purpose to return to an orderly mode of life, but in their present circumstances are unable to carry this purpose into effect without the aid of these institutions, through the temptations held out by a wandering mode of life and the difficulty of obtaining work.

The Arbeiterkolonien have been founded by private benevolent associations or unions, which, however, are everywhere assisted by state and commercial grants when their own funds prove not sufficient for the work they have undertaken to perform. Since 1885 the Grand Duchy of Hesse has had one of these Arbeiterkolonien at Neu-Ulrichstein in Upper Hesse, in common with the Prussian province of Hesse-Nassau.

(*b*) The Naturalverpflegungsstationen (aid stations) aim to afford wanderers without means, food and shelter for a few hours' work, and thus to deter them from begging from door to door. They are, therefore, placed on the highways known to be most frequented by tramps, at not more than half a day's journey apart. Oftentimes inns are connected with them, which, however, are not allowed to furnish strong drink to any inmate of the station. A policeman or commercial officer is generally in charge of such a station, and from this keeper the applicant receives admission to the station. The work rendered in return for the food and shelter received is of the most ordinary kind, requiring

no skill such as working on the highways, cutting up wood, breaking stone, etc.

To prevent these stations being made a convenience of by regular vagrants or tramps as much vigilance is exercised as possible, and to facilitate the procuration of work by strolling unfortunates what are known as Arbeitsnachweisebureaus (intelligence offices) are connected with the aid stations, which put the well disposed into the way of getting employment and force the tramp to show his true colors. There are 22 of these stations in the Grand Duchy of Hesse (population 994,000), which it costs about $7,500 annually to maintain, furnished by the communes, districts, or provinces. These form a union with those of the Prussian province of Hesse-Nassau, which union in its turn is a part of a general union embracing all Germany. The character and extent of this general body is shown by the printed minutes, 63 pages in length, of a constitutive assembly held at Cassel, Prussia, June 12 and 13, 1892. Adjoined to these minutes is a little control book of 24 pages, which the recipients of the bounty of the aid stations have to carry about them as a certificate of good faith, in which book is noted every stoppage made at the stations. This is to prevent the stations being made use of by confirmed tramps, and the control exercised is effected in the following way:

A wanderer is regarded as without means when he has less than 3 marks (75 cents) in money about him and can obtain no work. Any applicant for aid having more than this amount who conceals or denies the fact is on its discovery made to pay for the treatment he has received, and turned over to the police for deception. If the applicant shows himself by reason of age, sickness, or infirmity to be unfit for work, he is turned over to the police for pauper relief. Every applicant for asylum must possess a wander or control book (Wanderschein it is called), which he surrenders at each station he puts up at, and receives back on departing therefrom after having rendered the proper amount of work for the food and shelter afforded him. If he does not possess such a book he must obtain one by paying 25 pfennigs (6 cents) or working two hours for it. When an individual is suspected of having willfully destroyed his book, he is turned over to the police. The control book bears the name of its recipient as well as the date and place of its issue and indicates the direction in which the holder is going. The stations are half a day's journey on foot apart, as said above, and must be passed in orderly succession by these trampers. As the men have to work during the forenoon, only one station can be reached a day, and here a stop must be made for the night, when the control book has to be presented for entry of the fact, which is retained by the keeper of the station until the succeeding noon, when it is given back to its owner with the time and place of his departure noted in it and the stamp of the station affixed. This passes as evidence that the holder of the book is regularly passing from station to station looking for work and properly

acting at each station. The hour each station is quitted has to be writte in this book, and the station the holder has next in view can also b recorded.

If the wanderer obtains regular work for a time or falls sick, so tha he has to go to the hospital, these facts he must also get registered i his books to satisfactorily explain the break in his journey should h have to resume his wanderings and again call on the stations. Th possessor of the book is not allowed to make any entry himself in it no willfully to get another to do so. False entries, as well as the use b any other than the rightful holder of a control book, is a penal offens Station keepers are authorized to hold all control books improperl used. The leading rule at the stations is, use the mornings in work the afternoons in traveling. The wanderer is expected to work at station through the morning and use the next afternoon getting to th next station, where he should arrive as night approaches, with the nam of the station where he spent the morning, and the hour he left i entered in his control book by the keeper of that station. He is ex pected to make the distance between the two stations with promptnes and must reach by 7 o'clock in the evening the station where he want to put up for the night. In exceptional cases, especially in winter, o if the distance to the next objective station is more than five hour walking, a wanderer will be permitted to leave in the forenoon a statio where he has passed the night and a meal given him before he goe The station-keepers are also permitted to give these rovers food to tak with them when their way is particularly long. If a man passes th whole day at a station he is required to work all of that day.

If any applicant for asylum refuses to take a good place of wor offered him, he will not be admitted to the stations any more. Th kind of work the inmates of a station have to perform is determined b the keeper of the station, and the length of time worked is generall four hours. Applicants to whom asylum is refused because of viol tion of the regulations governing the stations are turned over to th local authorities. All parties arriving too late at the stations, or hav ing in their control books a break in the series of stations they hav stopped at, without its being accounted for by a certificate from an em ployer or a hospital that they were at work or sick during the interva or being met with on roads not running between stations, are liable t arrest and punishment by the police as common tramps. If the wan derer wants to look around for work, he must get from the station cards of permission for the purpose, so that constant knowledge can b kept of his whereabouts and time. On Sundays and holidays neithe tramping nor working is done, but asylum for these days granted to al properly provided with control books who timely apply therefor on th day before. Finally, it is expected that on Sundays each wanderer wil attend the divine services of his religion.

The different species of methods set forth above for extending ai

and asylum to workingmen in quest of work and withholding them from falling into vagrancy have had, in conjunction with other factors, a good effect in diminishing the number of cases of arrests and convictions for vagabondages, but they are not as effective as desired.

5. INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

It is a matter of general recognition in Germany that the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities, especially the giving of money to beggars, is injurious in its consequences and tends to encourage the idle, worthless, and vicious in seeking to get along without work. It is now, therefore, a matter of principle with public dispensers of charity, as well as with organized benevolent religious bodies, private benefactory institutions, and charitable socities, to inquire with care into the private circumstances and mode of life of every individual applying for aid, and to extend relief in such a way that their charity shall not be abused.

The public prints seek to discourage indiscriminate almsgiving by calling on the public from time to time in their columns not to give anything to street, road, or door beggars, but to direct them to the public places of succor; and charitable associations bind their members never to give money to such mendicants. The efforts made on the part of the authorities to suppress vagabondage and mendacity are given in the answer to interrogatory 4.

6. BEST CHARITY SYSTEM.

The best system of affording relief to the poor is—

(1) By careful investigation of each case that presents itself, especially of the degree of relief required and the occasion of it.

(2) By affording aid in such a way as to preclude all opportunity for abuse thereof, the best manner of relief being by the natural method—that is, by setting its recipients to work in some way, or by placing the aged, infirm, blind, etc., in specific asylums.

(3) By granting to the able-bodied relief in no case without the rendition of some kind of service in return for the aid supplied.

7. PAUPER MARRIAGES.

There is no legal restriction in Hesse on intermarriages by paupers

JAMES H. SMITH,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Mayence, July 18, 1892.

HAMBURG.

REPORT BY ACTING CONSUL BURKE.

CONTROLLING VAGRANCY.

For the public care of paupers the city of Hamburg (suburbs included) is divided into pauper districts. Each of these pauper districts comprises a number of pauper quarters or lodgings. The quarters or lodgings are in charge of an overseer of the poor, while the district is under the surveillance of the superintendent of the poor. The superintendent of the poor of each district and the overseers of the poor under his jurisdiction constitute a district board, in whose meetings the names of those in need of aid are ascertained. The organization of the Hamburg system of providing for the poor was first established by the poor laws of 1788, and has, generally, proved successful. A further perfection (in accordance with the spirit of the age), after the so-called "Elberfed system," which requires a greater individual care of the poor, is now being prepared and will probably go into effect in the near future. The board, however, cares solely for such persons as are able to prove residence. Homeless paupers in need of aid on account of sickness and other circumstances are compelled to apply for assistance to the department of police, which attends to the cases in the proper form. Private charity also takes care of these homeless paupers in different ways. Two asylums for the homeless—one for men, one for women and children—grant free night lodgings. Societies for the prevention of begging lend their support by furnishing meals, traveling expenses, and night lodging, and seek to stop begging in dwellings, etc. A branch of this society for inner mission supports two lodging houses, which, for small consideration, grant shelter, and are largely frequented. The "Society for Public Coffee Halls" supplies wholesome and cheap food, but does not permit the sale of spirituous liquors, etc., on its premises.

Its object is no further profit than a moderate interest on the capital invested. Furthermore, aside from different charitable enterprises, which seek to find employment for pauper applicants, the attempt is being made to temporarily employ transients and beggars with splitting wood and breaking coal. A prominent part of Hamburg's extensive private charity is performed by buildings donated for the purpose of giving domiciles to the poor. These partly originated in olden times, as for instance, St. George's Hospital, St. John's Hospital, Holy Ghost Hospital, Gast- und Krankenhaus, and the numerous so-called Gottes-wohnungen (Lord's dwellings), erected "to honor God and to support poor people in need of aid." A very considerable portion of these buildings, however, are of a later date, and especially of the last decades, and founded by wealthy and charitable citizens. The following named are, for example, the latest creations of Hamburg's private charity,

viz: The magnificent Schröder Asylum, Heine Asylum, Laeisz Asylum, Vorwerk's Asylum, Arnesen-, Alida Schmidt- and Schutte Asylums. To show the enormous extension of Hamburg's private charity an alphabetical index published in 1888, giving the names of charitable institutions, is hereto annexed. A center of unison for all private institutions and private charitable asylums of Hamburg is maintained by the establishment of a department for charitable institutions. This department has to superintend the management and to see that the will and instructions of the respective legators are exactly and perfectly carried out to the letter. It keeps a register of all persons supported by charitable institutions and gives information to everybody who can identify himself as superintendent of a charitable institution or asylum, whether and to what extent persons receive support, so as to prevent the bestowal of too many individual gifts to the same party.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

To properly check the plague of beggars and tramps, paragraphs § 361, 363, 364, 365, 367, and 368 of the imperial penal code are vigorously enforced by the police department and the courts of justice. A translation of these regulations is added, marked III.

Based upon these regulations, there were sentenced for begging in the last five years the following number of persons, sections 361–364:

1887	2,520	1890	2,001
1888	2,252	1891	2,230
1889	1,763		

The enforcement of section 362 of the penal code (of which a copy is contained in Appendix 2), which calls for the turning over of tramps to the police department of their respective homes, has proved to be a very effective means of suppressing tramps.

In consequence of this means of punishment an additional confinement was inflicted on the following number of persons:

1887	730	1890	578
1888	527	1891	453
1889	444		

Of which number the following persons were turned over for begging, viz:

1887	478	1890	329
1888	295	1891	247
1889	198		

The total length of additional confinement was as follows, viz:

	Yrs.	Mos.		Yrs.	Mos.
1887	955	4	1890	594	7
1888	555		1891	445	2
1889	468	1			

At the end of 1887 there were detained in the House of Correct

Year.	Total detained.	T fam
1887	580	
1888	628	
1889	439	
1890	481	
1891	401	

The enforcement of this severe measure is, upon a whole, contro by agreements between the respective governments of the confede states of the German Empire. With reference to the success obtai it must be said that the decrease of punishments for begging is deed, due to these agreements, especially when one considers the r increase of the population (beginning of December, 1891, about 5 000 in the city and suburbs and about 640,000 in the entire area of state) with 1890, an increase of about 15,000 head, and with Decem 1885, an increase of about 106,000 head.

Restrictions as to marriages are annulled by the federal law of 1 4, 1868.

[Extract from the penal laws for the German Empire.]

SECTION 361. Imprisoned shall be:

(1.) Whoever, after being under police surveillance, acts contrary to the inst tions given him on this account;

(2) Whosoever after being expelled from the federal territory or from that of federal state returns without permission;

(3) Every tramp;

(4) Whosoever begs or causes children to beg, or does not prevent persons begging;

(5) Whosoever, being subject to gambling, excessive drinking, or indolence, into such conditions in which it becomes necessary for him to seek outside aid thr the means of the authorities for his own maintenance, or that of those whom l obliged by law to support.

(7) Whosoever, when receiving public support, refuses, on account of indolen perform the task set him by the authorities which is within the limits of his abi

(8) Whosoever, after losing his former means of support, has not, within the its fixed by the proper authorities, endeavored to procure other employment, not able to prove that his efforts have turned out to be unsuccessful, despit strenuous efforts to obtain employment.

SECTION 362. All persons sentenced in accordance with section 361 (Nos. 3–8) be compelled to perform such outdoor labor as is consistent with their abiliti they can be kept separated from free laborers.

It may be ordered that sentenced persons are to be turned over to their respe home police authorities, after serving the sentence inflicted upon them. This thorizes the home police authorities to either place the sentenced persons in a w house up to two years, or to employ them for the public benefit.

In cases coming under section 361, No. 4, this is only admissible when the tenced person was again legally sentenced within three years following the las fense.

In cases of foreigners, sentenced to be turned over to their respective home p officials, the assignment to the workhouse may be substituted by expulsion.

In fixing the additional confinement in accordance with section 362 of the penal code, the following instructions will be observed:

(1) In fixing the additional imprisonment, all subjects of the Empire are to be treated the same.

(2) If, in accordance with section 362 of the penal code, the assignment to the home police authorities is ordered, the legal proceedings in this case are to be turned over to the respective home police authorities, in a manner to be designated by the latter, to enable them to fix the proper additional imprisonment.

(3) The correctional confinement, if section 362, section 2 of penal code is applicable, will, as a rule, be stated in each case of persons ordered to be turned over to their respective home police authorities. Exceptions take place in cases where individual circumstances, especially when (through medical examination) the inability of even performing light house, garden, or field labor is found on account of such physical disability, and when on account of advanced age the assignment to a workhouse appears inadvisable.

When it is resolved to inflict correctional confinement, the length of the same will be fixed upon by the home police authorities. It will in this case be observed that the term of detention for the first offense is to be fixed at six months up to a period not exceeding two years, and for repeated violations comparatively higher. The previous record of the retained persons, the gravity of offense, and especially the length of time passed since serving the last correctional confinement, are to be taken into consideration accordingly.

(5) When the conduct of the detained person lets it appear justifiable that the purpose of the additional imprisonment may be reached by a shorter time of detention than that for which the sentence calls, or when occurrences in family or trade relations of the person detained make it desirable, the time of detention may be reduced by the home police authorities, after presentation of the case to the director of the workhouse, together with the higher officials of this institution, including the clergyman, to one-half—however, to not less than three months.

In cases of bad behavior on the part of the person detained, the length of confinement may be prolonged by the home police authorities, after submitting the case to the board of directors of the workhouse.

CHAS. H. BURKE,
Vice and Acting Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hamburg, August 13, 1892.

MUNICH.

REPORT BY CONSUL CATLIN.

CONTROL OF VAGRANCY.

(1, 3) Such efforts as are made here in the matter of regulatin controlling "tramps" and "beggars," are in pursuance of a law Empire, according to which begging, tramping, and idleness, or ance of labor (arbeitsscheue) is punishable by imprisonment f weeks or less.

The police force are under orders to perform their duties wi utmost vigor in the matter of enforcing this law. And so far public streets are concerned, at least, their efforts meet with p success. Begging in the streets may be said not to exist, and va and other objectionable characters are seldom seen. Officers i dress patrol the streets for the purpose of detecting and apprehe violators of the law, and raids are frequently made in all place pected of harboring doubtful characters. When arrests are ma law is enforced as above mentioned, or in case an offender has be rested frequently during the preceding three years, he may be s a workhouse for a period not exceeding two years.

In the case of aliens, however, or of those who, not being aliens their home elsewhere than in Munich (in some other community the limits of the Empire, that is to say), the method of proceed different. As to aliens who are found guilty of violating the law may be banished from the Empire, and this is always done wh circumstances are such as to justify, in the opinion of the autho such extreme action. When the person convicted is not an alie his home is in a different community from that in which he w rested, he must be taken charge of by the home community, an proper case he is sent there. Each community is obliged to tak of its own vagrants and other such violators of the law, and, gen speaking, no expense will be incurred by any community in bel offenders who belong elsewhere, except to send them, if nece where they belong.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) In answer to question 2, I give the following statistics in r to the sums expended in Munich for charity in the year 1890, a objects for which they were expended. The figures for 1891 a yet accessible, but they would not greatly differ from those here

One of the sections of the poor law requires the poor boards o community to grant—

(*a*) To all persons whose home is in the community, when comp or partly unable to work, the necessary food, clothing, lodging, *ing, and* care to sustain life.

(*b*) To provide for the sick the necessary medical aid, including nursing and medicine, and especially to place all insane persons who are in need of watching and nursing in an insane asylum.

(*c*) To attend to the burying of persons dying without means in the community.

(*d*) To give to poor children the necessary education.

Another section provides that assistance or support, not exceeding fourteen days, shall be given to such persons as need it who, not being members of the community, have paid poor taxes therein for a certain length of time.

In pursuance of this law, some 900 persons were taken care of in the four poorhouses in Munich during the year 1890, at an expense of about 214,000 marks. (1 mark=23.8 cents.) Besides this, 270,000 marks were paid out by the poor board to 3,545 persons in monthly installments. The persons in question either could not be accommodated in the poorhouses or it was not necessary to take them there.

Sums of money not larger than 5½ marks were given out in 8,050 cases during the year. The amount thus expended was 43,850 marks.

In 4,360 cases money was expended in helping persons to pay their rent, the total amount of this expenditure being 14,121 marks.

Wood and peat for fuel were supplied in 6,000 cases during the year, at an expense of 21,000 marks. Clothing was supplied to 1,735 persons, at an expense of 10,000 marks.

In the Home for the Shelterless 279 persons were received, four weeks being the limit of time allowed for each person. About 130,000 marks were expended in behalf of the sick in hospitals and asylums.

As to poor children, 712 were provided for during the year, 392 in the country, under the care of foster parents, at a cost of 28,800 marks, 320 in institutions in Munich, at a cost of 39,360 marks. Some 5,000 poor children were helped in the matter of obtaining an education by gifts of money or furnishing them with books, according to the circumstances of each case. Articles of clothing were also furnished in a great many cases. Here may also be mentioned the suppenanstalten, ten of which existed in 1890, which were established mainly for the benefit of poor school children, and some of which are in the school buildings themselves. At these establishments all poor school children can obtain a portion of soup and a piece of bread at the expense of the poor board. Any other persons may obtain portions of soup at 8 pfennings, or 2 cents the portion. One hundred and forty-seven thousand five hundred and three portions were given out in 1890.

About 920,000 marks were paid out by the poor board in 1890 for the objects aboved named.

There are in Munich also between forty and fifty private societies and organizations established for the purpose of rendering assistance to the various classes of persons. The number of persons assisted by

these societies in 1890 was between forty and fifty thousand, and the amount expended was about 930,000 marks.

About half of the amount expended for charity in Munich is thus expended through the poor board and half by private societies.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) All that is being done in this direction is to give assistance to "tramps" and "beggars" only on the condition that they render some service in return, such as cutting wood, cleaning the streets, and the like, in order to bring them to a consciousness, if possible, that one does not get on without work. Any great success in this direction can not be reported. Persons of this sort who frequently ask alms and are disposed to do no work are put in workhouses, where they are obliged to work. Greater but by no means complete success has resulted from this method.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) There is nothing of importance to report from this locality under this head. It is not thought that the administration or dispensation of charity in Munich is indiscriminate in any such sense or degree as to have become a subject of complaint from any quarter. Charity is dispensed mainly in the ways above mentioned, either through the poor board or through one of the private societies, and in each case only after careful inquiry and with the idea of affording the precise relief that the circumstances require. There is a great deal of genuine poverty here, much more than can be relieved by the public money that the poor board is able to secure. Charity is therefore welcome in almost any form and from almost any quarter. Thus these private societies have sprung up for the relief of special classes of the poor and sick, and it is common for members of these societies to place a notice in a conspicuous place over the doors of their residences, mentioning the fact of their membership, which serves as a notice to all that they do not dispense charity except through the medium of the society.

While there is, therefore, more than one source of charity in Munich, and it may be that some persons are able to get assistance at more than one place, it may be safely said, I think, that indiscriminate giving, properly speaking, does not exist to any such extent as to have become and be regarded as an evil.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(6) I can not give any satisfactory answer to this question. I do not know that it can be said that the experience of Munich has proved any particular system to be best. I applied in the proper quarter for an official answer to be given by some person who had the requisite knowledge and experience, and the answer that came I add in a literal trans-

lation. It is not strictly responsive to the question, it will be seen. It is as follows:

What would best lead to the result that indigent persons become self-supporting and regain their self-respect would be a system decentralized as much as possible, for instance, as in Elberfeld [a town in Prussia] where only five or six persons are assigned to one overseer, whose duty is to watch like a father over his wards.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) A person can not be married here without obtaining a license from the community where his home is. If within the 3 years prior to the application he has applied for public support the license can be refused. It can also be refused where either of the parties is in arrears for contributions to the poor funds.

The effect of these restrictions is said to be favorable in various ways. In the first place, in preventing the marriage of persons who already require public support the community preserves itself from the fresh demands which the marriage would probably lead to. Secondly, persons have a motive in not applying for support if it can be avoided, when they know that by doing so they are putting difficulties in the way of getting a marriage license, and they are thus incited to earn their living through their own efforts.

F. W. CATLIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Munich, July 1, 1892.

PLAUEN.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT PETERS.

Tramps are under the control of the police, and when caught begging are at once arrested and returned to the town they belong to, or if they are "citizens" they are fined and imprisoned.

Begging is absolutely prohibited, want of work is no excuse, and in order that this excuse may not be given, public institutions for the care of vagrants are in every city and township of Germany.

Each city, town, and village form a so-called "armenverband," a public association which attends to the care of paupers. The "armenverband" derives its funds from a tax levied on the communities. The state pays nothing towards the expenses. Only such persons as are unable to work receive assistance. Those who can work and will not are imprisoned.

Every person found begging is punished. If they again violate the regulations they are sent to the poor-house, where they are under severe discipline, receive scant food, have hard labor, and are, if the case demands it, beaten. The tramps fear these poor-houses more than the prisons.

The poor-houses are meant to improve the tramp morally, but the authorities admit that this is done in but few cases. The labor colonies show a much better result.

Wherever alms are freely given, and no work required in return, begging has increased.

Increasing the number of colonies, prohibiting the private giving of alms, making the giver as well as the receiver subject to fine and arrest, requiring all funds for the poor to pass through the hands of an organized society, who will make it their business to see that the recipients are worthy, are the best methods looking to the elevation of the recipients, etc.

Marriage among beggars is not prohibited; formerly it was, but the law is now abolished, as the prohibition did more harm than good.

THOMAS W. PETERS,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Plauen, June 21, 1892.

POMERANIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL KELLOGG, OF STETTIN.

In the year 1883 a society was formed in the province of Pomerania, called, "Society for the Suppression of Vagabondage in the Province of Pomerania," which led to the following steps, viz:

(1) Foundation of a labor colony, where the inmates are compelled to work for their board and lodging.

(2) Foundation of stations for people who are out of employment, where board and lodging are furnished and which serves as feeders for the labor colony.

(3) Employment bureaus.

The board and lodging stations are scattered all over the province (at about half a day's journey), and enable those who arrive there to be sent to the labor colony without having to beg for alms on the way, as these stations are not far apart.

The labor colony is on a country estate purchased by the province for this purpose, and is situated near Ramelow, Pomerania.

The aim of these institutions is to make out of tramps and vagrants, through work and moral training, useful and respectable citizens. To reach this end the rules and regulations are very strict, conferring upon the head officer, or manager, absolute power as regards the manner of inflicting punishment for all violations of the same. Much attention is given to religious instruction, and all are compelled to attend divine service, morning and evening. It may be in place to mention here that the conception of these institutions originated in the mind of

a Lutheran minister of the gospel, who lived to see the practical results obtained by them, thereby doing his tramp-afflicted country a great and lasting service.

The inmates of the colony receive, during their first fortnight, no wages for work performed. After this period the wages given increase from 5 cents to 10 cents per day, which latter figure is the maximum. As soon as the wages earned reach the value of the clothes furnished at the time of entrance into the colony, the beneficiaries must refund to the institution the money value of the same.

The colony endeavors, through outside influence, to secure work for those inmates who have been benefited. Those who have not profited by their stay are retained for two years at the maximum, and those who show violence, which rarely occurs, are sent to prison.

On leaving a station the tramp is furnished with a ticket on which is stamped the name of the last station visited and the date of his arrival there. Very seldom does a tramp stay out the maximum length of time (two years), as the restraint is not to his liking. The majority soon find work and cease to be public charges.

To aid in the support of the colony the province of Pomerania has issued two noninterest-bearing loans.

The cost of a day's board and lodging amounts to 9 cents a person at the stations. The funds for the maintenance of these stations are collected by subscriptions from the members of the above-named society and by house donations.

Since the foundation of the colony and stations (1883) 2,301 persons, up to March 31, 1891, have been admitted, and 2,196 dismissed. During the fiscal year 1890–'91, 327 were admitted. Of this number 180 came from Pomerania.

As a direct result of these labor colonies and stations, street and house begging have decreased enormously throughout the German Empire.

JAMES C. KELLOGG,
Consul.

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES,
Stettin, May 17, 1892.

SAXONY.

REPORT BY CONSUL PALMER, OF DRESDEN.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

In the Kingdom of Saxony every individual is compelled, under penalty of fine or imprisonment, to report himself at the "Meldeamrt," a special division of the police department, if his sojourn in one place exceeds three days, and he is required to give his name and occupation, and produce evidence of his means of subsistence.

Vagrants are divided into two classes The first class, generally designated "tramps," are persons who travel on foot from place to place without any specific object and without trade or calling.

The second class, generally known throughout Germany as "arme Reisende"—penniless travelers—are not looked upon commonly as tramps, but are classed as trades laborers, who wander from their former working place to seek employment elsewhere.

Anyone caught in the act of begging, or who is suspected of being a begger or tramp, can be arrested by the police, who investigate the facts of the case. If necessary his identity and previous punishments, if any, are established by application at his home or birthplace. Should the person arrested give any wrong name or is provided with forged papers he is subject to severe punishment—with imprisonment beyond the regular punishment for begging or vagrancy.

Further all keepers of inns, who offer lodging to individuals of the lowest class, are instructed, under penalty of punishment themselves to demand of each comer, immediately upon his arrival, proper and sufficient identification. If such persons are not able to produce satisfactory evidence as to their identity or if their papers in any way appear suspicious, the police must be immediately notified. These inns and also the asylums for the shelterless are specially inspected by the police every morning.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

Much good is done towards the suppression of begging by private parties who are assisted greatly in their work by the local authorities. In almost every town there are private societies to provide for the poor and to prevent begging. The members of such societies do not help the poor from their own hands, but refer them to the central office of the society, where they are, as the case may be, provided with clothing and food or given proper work; to these belong the public kitchens, general intelligence offices for obtaining work, asylums for homeless, where supplies of clothing, etc., are kept. Based upon the provision contained in the Saxon law for paupers, a local regulation for paupers has been established for the city of Dresden, by which the entire system for their support is intrusted to an Ausschuss für das Armenwesen, board of commissioners for poverty.

This board is composed of three classes: Members of the city council, Stadtrath, members of the house of representatives, Stadtverordnete, and lastly citizens, who are elected by the city representatives.

The executive body of this Ausschuss für das Armewesen is the poor board Armenamt which is endowed with most extensive authority.

As the size of the city and the great number of indigents make it impracticable for the poor board to exercise immediate and direct care of the poor, it avails itself of the assistance of a large number of citi

ens within the city. These men are called "Armenpfleger," guardians of the poor, an honorary, gratitous office.

The city is divided into 45 Armenpfleger-Vereine, societies for the are of the poor, presided over by one superintendent, who alone has ie privilege of conducting business between the societies and the oor board. To each society are attached from 6 to 15 of the above-ientioned Armenpfleger, as the demand may be.

The superintendent distributes the work and duties within the societies.

It is the duty of the Armenpfleger to pass upon the applications for ssistance which come to them directly or indirectly from the poor oard, which means they must make a close and careful personal nvestigation and collect sufficient evidence whether the applicants are orthy of charity and to what degree and also in what manner and to hat extent public assistance appears necessary.

It is further their duty to distribute among the poor money collected y voluntary contribution and certificates which entitle the holder to specified amount of the article named thereon. They also exercise irect supervision over the manner of living of such paupers within nd away from their dwellings, and also over their willingness to work.

The kind and quantity of alms granted varies according to whether he indigents are supported by public charity or within closed institutions.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

According to the imperial German penal code (section 361, subdivisions 3, 4, and 5):

(3) A punishment up to six weeks' imprisonment is inflicted on all ndividuals who wander about as "tramps."

(4) A punishment up to six weeks' imprisonment is inflicted on all eggars, or on such persons who induce children to beg, or send them ut for such purpose, or make no effort to prevent from begging such ersons as are under their control, or in their service, or belong to their ousehold.

Further, the law makes punishable up to six weeks' imprisonment in ose confinement:

(5) Whosoever indulges in gambling, drinking, or idleness to such a extent that it becomes necessary to support with alien help (by intervention of the authorities) those whom it is his duty to provide for.

Punishment for the above offenses may eventually be extended by ssigning the culprit to the "Landespolizeibehörde," land police uthorities (section 362, 2), who have the power to confine the offender n the public workhouse for a period up to two years. Besides the nperial laws, there are also the Saxon laws for paupers ("Landesgesetze"), by which all idle and lazy persons can be compelled by police uthorities to work.

In Dresden the "poor board" is vested with rights and privileges of police authorities as above, and a workhouse has accordingly been erected by it. The confinement, treatment, and discharge of the individuals confined are subject to special regulations compiled for this institution.

In this workhouse such persons who, through their own bad habits, have made themselves and others dependent and subject to public charity, are confined.

The object of this institution, and what it attempts to accomplish, is to accustom the inmates to a strictly orderly and industrious mode of life, under proper surveillance, so that they will be capable and willing, after having regained freedom, to support themselves in a respectable manner. The discharge from the institution is granted as soon as there is reasonable evidence that this task has been accomplished.

The average time of confinement ranges from three months to two years.

There is a "society for working colonies" in the kingdom of Saxony (Verein für Arbeiter-Colonien im Königreich Sachsen) which is intended to offer an opportunity for work to all male individuals who are penniless and without occupation, provided they are willing and able to work.

The society makes every effort to suppress, as much as possible, begging and vagrancy. Assistance is offered to all without distinction of religion or creed.

Discharged criminals are not excluded from the assistance of the society.

The use of liquors is absolutely forbidden in the establishments. Those who have shown themselves industrious and orderly during their stay at the "Working colony" are, if possible, provided with a position after their discharge from the colony. The funds of the society are derived from voluntary contributions of individuals, of corporations, communities, districts, and of the state, and partly from the revenues of the working establishments themselves.

Every respectable citizen can become a member of the society, provided he binds himself to payment of an annual contribution of not less than 3 marks (75 cents), and requests that his name be entered on the list of members. This gives him the right to vote. Members can leave the society any day under written notice to the president. One annual meeting at least must be held.

The board of directors consists of 9 members, elected for three years. They have the right to increase their number up to 12. They superintend and conduct all the affairs of the institutions; they control the expenditures, decide upon changes within the colonies, etc.

There are twenty-three working colonies in Germany.

The first colony in Saxony was established in February, 1886, at Schueckengrün.

The voluntary contributions from September, 1885, to June 30, 1886, amounted to 96,558.30 marks. The largest number of laborers that can be accommodated in this institution is 120. A chapel is connected with the buildings, in which religious services are held. They are furnished with medical attendance. The main building contains bedrooms, dining-rooms, kitchen, and rooms of superintendent. The adjoining buildings contain workshops for carpenters, shoemakers, tailors, etc.

Every new arrival is required to take a bath.

Since the establishment of the colony to December 31, 1891, 2,188 men have been admitted, and 2,068 discharged, leaving a balance on December 31, 1891, of 120 men.

During the year 1891, 304 men were admitted of 43 different trades, of which 51 had not been punished by police, and 253 punished (generally for minor offenses).

Unmarried	208
Married	51
Widowers	32
Divorced	13
Protestant	277
Catholics	26
Reformed	1
Their ages were:	
Under 20 years	16
20 to 30 years	62
30 to 40 years	88
40 to 50 years	87
50 to 60 years	46
Over 60 years	5

There were refused admittance 58 during the year 1891, the establishment being overcrowded.

The longest stay of a colonist was five hundred and seventy-seven days, the shortest one day. The wages allowed average from 10 pfennig to 40 pfennig per day, and the total expenditure for wages in 1891 amounted to 6,531.13 marks, which was paid out for clothing, tobacco, petties, etc., and any remainder in cash found due any colonist upon his discharge. Eleven colonists were furnished with a position after their discharge and 6 obtained work by application.

The different occupations of the colonists during the year 1891, beside the work on the fields and in the stables, consisted of washing, cooking, shoemaking, carpentry, and blacksmiths', locksmiths', and saddlers' work.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

Indiscriminate public and private charities are found to have unfavorable results in making an uneven distribution of alms and tending to encouragement of professional beggars, to the detriment of the deserving poor. A record is kept at the office of the "poor board" of all

recipients of charities, as far as reported by societies and individuals, and either can there ascertain what the condition of the applicant is and what assistance he has already received.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

The system of distribution of public and private charities hereinbefore mentioned is considered satisfactory and no change is contemplated.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

There are no laws in force to prevent the intermarriage of paupers. All existing laws in reference to such restrictions were abolished by the law of May 4, 1868, as the results were unfavorable, and the number of illegitimate children was only increased.

AULICK PALMER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Dresden, October 15, 1892.

SONNEBERG.

REPORT OF VICE-CONSUL FLORSCHUTZ.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

Vagrants (Stromer, Vagabunden) are under control of the police, who are authorized by law to convey tramps or vagrants by compulsion to their home or parish.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

In cities and towns there is at the head of each district a citizen called Bezirksvorsteher, warden or inspector of the district, who has to take care of the poor of his district and to whom they have to apply in case of need. In most of the cities of this district there are associations of ladies, Frauenvereine, that endeavor to alleviate the distress of the poor, especially by providing employment (work) for them. The raw material for knitting stockings, for sewing shirts, is supplied to the poor gratis or at a very low price; the stockings and shirts made them are sold by the intermediation of the members of the association. Besides this, girls' schools have been established, in which girls from 10 to 14 years old are taught knitting and sewing in two lessons every day except Sunday. They are also instructed in doing all sorts of domestic work, *e. g.*, scouring rooms, vessels, etc. Poor women lying in are supplied with food during a fortnight and receive for the new born child two shirts, two jackets, and two pillow cases.

There are still other associations of ladies, named in honor of the igning princesses, the Alexandrinenverein für Armen- und Kranken-lege, for instance, which is called after the Duchess Alexandrina of burg, the task and purpose of these associations being to relieve the or and the sick with the assistance of two or more deaconesses.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

In order to suppress begging, especially begging from door to door, almost every city, town, and village, associations were founded, ose members engaged themselves not to give any pecuniary alms to ggars, but to pay a yearly share or quota to the funds of the associi-ion. Out of these funds every journeyman mechanic that passed by ces with such an association received in one of the public houses erbergen) that are under control of the association free lodging for ight and food (fare) during a whole day. In case there is any em-yment offered for him in the business of any tradesman or artisan must, of course, instantly accept it. In Coburg the association has public house of their own, situated outside of the town and called erberge zur Heimath Irizmannsstiftung.

In consequence of these efforts begging from door to door is at pres-t becoming a rare phenomenon. The laws provide that it can be nished by imprisonment.

Finally, the laws concerning the working classes which have been acted in Germany of late: the law regulating the funds for the relief the sick (das Krankenkassengesetz); the law of insurance against cidents (das Unfallversicherungsgesetz); and the law of insurance ainst invalidity and old age (das Invaliditäts- und Altersversiche-ngsgesetz); all these social laws are a powerful means of controlling d subduing pauperism.

Workingmen's Colonies.

Workingmen's colonies (Arbeiterkolonien) have been established ithin the last ten years, in order to provide lodging, clothing, and od for those journeymen mechanics who can not find employment, d thus prevent them from becoming a burden to society. These colo-es are farms, in which all sorts of work may be offered these jour-ymen, *e. g.*, cutting wood, clearing land, draining morasses, etc. By ing these jobs those vagrants are expected to pay for the food, cloth-g, and lodging they receive, and it may be hoped that many of them ill be accustomed in this manner to industry, order, and cleanliness, d that they also will be accessible to the beneficial influence of ivine service and private devotion, which they have an opportunity attending in those places.

What has been the effect of this new method of taking care of itin-rant workingmen can not as yet be ascertained.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

Wherever alms are given in an indiscriminate manner to the indigent, who can not earn their livelihood, and to the lazy, who do not like to work, the result must be that the lazy are encouraged and fortified in their laziness, and that, as experience teaches, the greater part of the alms are spent on brandy, in gambling, etc.

The principal and essential aim of public and private charities ought to be giving employment to the poor, enabling them to earn by manual work their livelihood. Most praiseworthy are also the efforts which are being made to provide good lodgings, a house of their own for the workingmen's families—efforts which have most brilliantly succeeded at Mülhausen, in Alsace, where La cité ouvrière forms a considerable part of that great manufacturing city.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

Since the introduction of civil marriage young people of either sex are permitted by law to marry provided they have attained a certain age (21 years), and neither parishes nor town corporations have the right of preventing (forbidding) intermarriages between paupers. Many inconveniences are the result of these acquisitions of modern times, since it is on the community (parish) that the burden of supporting a pauper's family falls whenever the supporter given by nature, the paterfamilias, fails in his duty.

ALVIN FLORSCHULTZ,
Vice and Acting Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sonneberg, March 23, 1892.

GREECE.

REPORT BY CONSUL HANCOCK, OF PATRAS.

Happily, this country, owing to its sparse population, fertility of soil, and the frugal habits of its laboring classes, has little or no poverty, so that there is no necessity for a system of dispensing public charity, and such, I believe, does not exist.

In case of disaster such as that produced by severe earthquake, a local committee is generally formed, in which the mayor usually takes a prominent part, to collect subscriptions and dispense the amount received as they deem best; but this is only a temporary arrangement and the places affected soon right themselves. The class known as "tramps" is consequently rarely met with, as they have no encouragement, it being well known that men capable of working can always find some sort of employment.

Begging is not allowed, but of course some few beggars exist, maimed, crippled, or too old to work, who, when discovered, are sent by the police to their native places, or, if natives, may go into the poorhouse, where such institutions exist. There is one in this town supported by voluntary contributions and bequests that are constantly being left for it. It is a very usual thing for a well-to-do Greek to bequeath by will sums to the hospital, poorhouse, and foundling hospital, and each of these establishments has now funds that insure to it some annual income.

The only institution I know of, where it may be said private charities have been used for the amelioration of the recipients and the teaching them self-respect, is at Athens and is for indigent women, instituted by and under the special patronage of the queen. Weaving in silk and linen, carpet and rug making, is taught there, and it has been so successful that I imagine it is now self-supporting.

I need scarcely add that, under the circumstances described, there is no necessity to make efforts to prevent intermarriage of paupers.

E. HANCOCK,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Patras, March 19, 1892.

HOLLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL GARDNER.

The questions of the circular can not be answered in the order in which they are put, because there are in the Netherlands no vagrants corresponding to the American "tramp" type and no vagrants of any description for whose urgent needs public provision is not made.

The law of the Netherlands regulating public and private charities places all charity-giving institutions—civil, religious, nonreligious, or mixed—under the supervision of officers of the general government, to which officers detailed reports must be periodically submitted. The entire work of almsgiving is brought thus within the oversight and under the virtual direction of a single responsible head; and the practical and admirable result is that there is, on the one hand, no duplicate giving or giving to unworthy applicants and, on the other hand, no necessities of the really indigent neglected or left unprovided. Religious and private societies may refuse in their discretion to give aid; but the civil authorities of cities and villages, through the police, are bound to relieve and, as a matter of fact, do relieve every known case of actual need which can not be or is not elsewhere provided for.

It is worthy of especial note that the general law describes the domicile of aid to be "the locality where the need is found to exist, whether

it be the legal domicile of the beneficiary or not." By this provision even the foreigner found anywhere in the country to be in need is supplied with food and lodging by the police until, in their discretion, he is "sent over the border" in the direction of his home.

Every destitute person becomes thus, if not the ward of one of the numerous charitable organizations that everywhere abound, then the ward of the police authorities, and there is therefore no occasion and almost no opportunity for public vagrancy.

Now and then, in the larger cities, match-peddlers and pencil-peddlers and the like make of their vocation a cloak for begging, but public beggary is everywhere in the Netherlands prohibited by the penal code and in all places maintaining charitable institutions is punishable by terms of detention ranging from twelve days to three years in the State Work Colony.

There is, in the centers of population in the Netherlands, especially in the inclement seasons, very considerable poverty, but absolute destitution is almost uniformly averted either by some of the various instrumentalities above noted or else by the benevolence of individuals and business firms, who not infrequently, if work for the work people be lacking or if the winter be very severe, open and maintain soup and coffee kitchens. All who choose may contribute to the maintenance of such emergency work, and it is to the credit of the well-to-do Dutch people that contributions in aid of these public soup-kitchens always equal the demands made upon them by the poor.

Replying to questions 4, 5, 6, and 7 of the circular instruction upon which this report is based, I have to say that, so far as I am able to ascertain, the immediate as also the ultimate aim of the system of charity-giving in the Netherlands is to relieve obvious want merely. The subtle question of influence upon the character of the beneficiary is not professedly considered. It should here be added, however, that the pervasive habit in Dutch life is industry and self-support and thrift, and it is not in the character of even the low-born Dutch to become or to continue needlessly a pauper. There has been no effort by legal enactment or otherwise to prevent marriage among paupers.

As covering amply and admirably the entire subject of the methods and extent of public charitable work in the Netherlands, I refer those interested to an exhaustive report compiled wholly from official sources by the Hon. Samuel R. Thayer, minister of the United States at The Hague, and published in the consular reports for the month of November, 1891.

WALTER E. GARDER,
Consul.

U. S. CONSULATE,
Rotterdam, April 28, 1892.

HOLLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL SCHLEIER, OF AMSTERDAM.

Vagrants and tramps are not very numerous in Holland. This is owing to the stringent laws forbidding begging, and to the many charitable institutions supported by the Government, cities, churches, and numerous organized private benevolent associations.

The governmental board of charity is regulated by statutes, and the Queen Regent makes an annual report of their workings to the States General.

The supporting of the poor, in general, is left to the church and private charity associations, as by statute no municipal government can give any support to the poor before being satisfied that they are not supported by the church or private institutions.

For the investigation of the condition of those asking for support there are a number of inspectors.

The distribution of such support as has been allotted to each takes place at the poorhouses, where they have to appear at a given time to receive it; this relates to such poor who need temporary assistance.

There are many asylums for all kinds of disabled persons. The different denominations have homes for the aged, orphans, or disabled, for both sexes; they are all well supported, and all the other private charitable societies are well organized.

They consist of members who subscribe an annual donation, and authorized solicitors of these societies make frequent visits to citizens not members.

It has never been possible to organize a concert of action by the charitable institutions, although many efforts have been made; consequently it is difficult to guard against the imposition of the shrewd beggar; however, they are only supplied with the necessities of life, and receive no money.

Members are assigned in their precinct to investigate the wants of the needy applicant, and often good citizens, not members, are solicited to become examiners in their precinct.

As a rule, no assistance is rendered without a thorough investigation, and then such support is rendered as the case may require. Owing to the ample provisions to help the poor, begging is strongly discouraged, but there are some professional beggars who escape arrest by offering for sale a box of matches, pencils, or some other trifling article. These are, however, principally patronized by strangers.

Those arrested for begging are put in jail for the first case up to twelve days; if rearrested, for a longer term in the workhouse, the limit of which is three years. This punishment embraces the "vagrant and tramp." The work done is not ordinarily of the nature which comes in conflict with that of a regular professional.

The commendable feature of the workhouse arrangement is that they have not only to earn their own support, which, however, is charged

to them at the lowest actual cost, but they have to do sufficient work to create a small surplus, which is placed to their credit. To accomplish this, however, it does not require the whole working day, and those who are willing can earn more. This has stimulated many to work every hour they are permitted, and at the end of their term every one receives in cash their savings, which to some amounts to a great deal more than they ever before possessed at one time.

It is a fact that some have later recommitted the offense to gain the same opportunity; however, these are exceptional cases. As a rule, the condition of the discharged prisoner has in general improved.

There is no law preventing the intermarriage of paupers.

T. M. SCHLEIER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, May 23, 1892.

ITALY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL BOURN, OF ROME.

(1) Although there are numberless beggars in Italy, the typical tramp, *i. e.*, one who goes from town to town, is almost unknown. Each town is obliged, by means of municipal charitable institutions, to care for its resident poor. However, the distress and poverty of the country are so great and the means to be disposed of for this purpose relatively so small that the law which should prohibit begging becomes a dead letter.

(2) There are three classes of charitable institutions in Italy, those under the patronage of the Government, those of the municipality, and those of private individuals. The first are called "opere pie," and represent sums or estates left by legacy for specified charitable objects. Upon the extinction of the heirs these legacies are controlled by the Government. According to a recent law intended to reform all charitable institutions throughout Italy, the so-called "opere pie" are now administered by a local committee in each town, called a "Congregazione di Carita," while the numerous private charities are, of course, administered by their founders, and those under the patronage of the municipality by city authorities.

(3) There exist workhouses for vagrants in some of the cities, but the law can not be enforced because these houses are inadequate, therefore beggars and vagrants continue to abound.

(4) Efforts towards reform are made only by certain charitable institutions, which offer encouragement and endeavor to find employment for those who show a willingness to support themselves.

(5) Previous to the recent reform, referred to above, the effects of ıdiscriminate dispensation of charities were lamentable and tended ather to increase than diminish the number of beggars. Now, how. ver, by means of a wiser and more prudent administration of the ınds to be disposed of, every effort is being made to reach and benefit he greatest possible number and to assist those deserving of help.

(6) The present reformed system is the best that the country has yet :nown.

(7) No law exists for the prevention of pauper marriages.

AUGUSTUS O. BOURN,
Consul-General.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES,
Rome, April 18, 1892

FLORENCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL LONG.

In the city of Florence there are 202 charitable institutions, viz: For :he relief of the poor, 158; for instruction and education of poor children, 29; for assistance and relief of patients, 15.

The system of affording assistance to the poor at their homes is very leficient up to the present time, although very important for moral and ıygienic considerations.

Of the 202 charitable institutions 3 are for Protestants, 30 for Jews, ınd 169 for Roman Catholics.

There is much money devoted to donations for girls 21 years of age ır at the time of their marriage, which donations vary from $2 to $300.

There is also a large excess of homes for females over those for males.

Intermarriages of paupers have no restraint. On the contrary, no ıfficial revenue stamps or fees on documents are required for marriage. The royal household keeps a special bill for the relief of many destitute 'amilies, especially of ruined noblemen, amounting to several thousand lollars, besides the subsidies granted by the King and Queen of Italy, vhenever visiting Florence, in response to about 5,000 written applica- ıions sent by mail, produced at the Pitti Palace, or thrown into the ·oyal carriages.

Four institutions deserve special mention in regard to the manner of lispensing public charities and of controlling and abating the class of vagrants, viz:

(1) Congregation of Charity of St. John the Baptist, the patron of :he city, supplying clothing, food, and money, upon the presentation of ı certificate of moral character and church attendance, issued by the rector of each parish.

(2) Society for suppression and prevention of beggars, through the making of cheap and crude utensils, such as baskets, brushes, screens, etc.

(3) Charitable working institution for males and females, old and young, founded by Napoleon the First, King of Italy, in 1810, with $100,000 capital.

(4) Patronage Society, for persons released from Tuscan penitentiaries, to find situations or procure work.

Separate and distinct from the foregoing are a great many important private legacies left for the benefit of the poor and indigent of all classes in the province of Florence, as follows:

For persons who become ill or sustain injury	21
For assisting sick and decrepid poor in their homes	8
For women in confinement	1
For relief of the poor, bequeathing clothing and food	12
For issuing money to the poor	49
For issuing clothes only	17
For granting loans on pledges	6
For assistance of orphans	11
For instruction and education of poor children	54
For support of students	27
For support of young girls	406
For care of incurables and relief of young girls	9
Miscellaneous legacies of a varied charitable character	12

Of these legacies 39 were bequeathed before the year 1500; 271, from 1500 to 1700; 166, from 1700 to 1800; and 159, from 1800 to 1892.

Charity has not in any measure languished through these centuries, but the kind of relief offered has varied according to social development.

In the eighteenth century little was done with regard to education, but in the present century, Sunday, week-day, and evening schools were established in connection with asylums and other institutions technical and agrarian in their character.

Some of these charitable institutions are endowed and others depend on voluntary donations; the former numbering 163, with a capital of $11,155,443, and the latter numbering 472, with assets of $1,153,459.

The expenses of maintenance are about 12 per cent of the income, and subsidies of various kinds are granted to the extent of $231 per 100 habitants, viz, $2.31 per capitem, the population of the province of Florence being over 500,000 inhabitants.

But in spite of this praiseworthy charitable work, and of article of the law, January 26, 1889, for the public surety in the Kingdom of Italy, which reads: "In the communes where exists an asylum for relief of the poor, it is forbidden to beg in the public streets and in any other place opened to the public," the number of beggars and tramps, in the city and province, is great.

JAMES VERNER LONG,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Florence, May 14, 1892.

LEGHORN.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL MASI.

compulsory for all persons in Italy to have certain papers prov-
th, parentage, occupation, residence, etc. The papers are given
by the authorities of the parish to which they belong, and on
papers are noted any misdemeanors or offenses of which they
ave been guilty. In case of absence from their parish, these
must be visaed by the proper authorities, and if they are not in
such persons are returned to the parish to which they belong.
ter, when work is over in the mountains, there is a regularly
lled emigration to the south of laborers who return to their
in the spring. The class of vagrants known in the United
as "tramps" is unknown here.
his consular district the most important methods employed for
tribution of alms are by means of certain societies and institu-
riginated for this end. Some of these are supported entirely by
ary subscriptions; others have, besides such subscriptions, cer-
ms granted them by the municipality, or they have received be-
which they hold either in trust or absolutely.
two most important of these institutions provide a home for the
nt and decrepit and for abandoned children. These latter are
ed separately (the males from the females) in schools connected
he institutions. The females are taught weaving, sewing, and
occupations suitable for women, and on coming to a certain age
s found for them or they are put out to service. Many of them

males are taught the various trades or farming—for there is a
belonging to one of these charities—and as a rule become self-
ting.
ay be of interest to know that the cost per day of an adult in
nstitutions, including all expenses of administration, clothing,
verages about 80 centimes (16 cents), and for a child 35 centimes
s).
article in the Italian code prohibits begging, but nevertheless it
prevalent here, and it is practically left to the municipal author-
take such measures as they may see fit to suppress it.
his consular district no organized efforts are made to convert
s and tramps to self-supporting members of society.
effects of indiscriminate private charities, here as elsewhere, are
cial perhaps to the bestower, but rarely to the receiver.
best system of distributing aid in this province has been proved
by providing work suitable to the persons to be assisted, at a
payment suitable to the special exigencies of the case.
everything in Italy is controlled by the authorities, intermar-
of *paupers is practically* impossible. The effects of restraints

on marriage is shown by the number of illegitimate children, which in 1890 numbered 233 out of a total of 2,793 births, and in 1891, 237 out of a total of 2,816; a ratio of nearly 9 per cent.

EMILIO MASI,
Vice and Acting Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Leghorn, March 21, 1892.

MILAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEPPER.

Milan, situated upon the loveliest plain of Lombardy abounds in charitable and humanitarian institutions. It has boasted that in all ages and up to the present time generous friends to the poor and sincere philanthropists have lived and died here. Many of the public structures, exceed in vastness, beauty, and magnificence all other establishments of the same kind in Europe. The Lombardians have always been distinguished for their industry, thrift, independence, and philanthropy. It was the combination of these splendid qualities which emancipated northern Italy, founded her glorious republic, and built up the League of Lombardy, which has been truthfully and appropriately called the "Magna Charta of Europe." Milan owes much to the public spirit of her benevolent citizens. The family of Borromeo left a vast amount of money to found a hospital, and one of them, Charles, received the crown of canonization for his liberality.

All charitable institutions in Italy are regulated by the law of 1862, the recent law of 1890 not yet being in full operation. In accord with this law, a committee of charity is organized in every commune or municipality. These committees have charge of all the poor in their districts. The committee consists of a president and four members where the population is under 5,000, and where there are more the committee is made up of twelve members. The duties of these committees are prescribed in the following order:

They keep poor and destitute persons in poorhouses who have no relatives to aid them in any way. They care for and support illegitimate children, and furnish them the means of a fair education and the practical knowledge of a trade. They help the sick in their own houses, and the likewise render sustenance to poor workingmen when they are out of employment. All citizens have the privilege, and it is expected of them, that they will see that the tribunals enforce and carry out the law. There are no ostensible beggars here. Milan is a city without mendicants. If any one is detected asking for alms a policeman immediately arrests the offender. Sometimes these unfortunates when caught pretend to be selling matches or something of the kind.

I proceed after this general statement to answer your question more *in detail.*

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) Persons 18 years old and upwards able to work and who have erved a sentence of imprisonment for thefts, frauds, or any offense of uch a nature, as also idlers and vagrants without means of subsistnce, are suspected, and therefore under a certain control of the police) whom they must give an exact account as to the manner in which hey make their living. This examination is ordered at the will of the uthorities. In case the authorities are not satisfied with the examinaon, the culprits are put under the rule of admonition; a reasonable me is allowed these persons to find something to do. They must lways inform the police of their lodging, and give due notice whenever hey change from one place to another. They are forbidden to leave heir lodging at an unusual early hour in the morning, and must return t the prescribed hour at night. They are not allowed to visit brothels r any similar place of infamy known to the police as the resorts of agrants or persons of bad reputation. Neither are they allowed to go equently to wine shops or similar establishments.

This admonition lasts two years, and should the admonished commit an offense against the law during that period, and for which he has had to undergo punishment, the two years admonition ceases upon the day when the sentence expires, but only to commence again for two years. The president of the court of justice is authorized to shorten the period of the admonition if the conduct of the prisoner has improved, so that the cause of inflicting the admonition has absolutely isappeared. These regulations and punishments are only applicable) persons born in Milan or residing there for ten years; otherwise they re sent to their respective communities to which they belong. Foreign espassers are sent to the boundaries and they are then consigned) the authorities beyond these boundaries who take charge of them.

Vagrants and idlers between the ages of 8 and 18 are delivered to eir families or guardians, who must support them and also educate em. If they are too poor, or the minors have no guardians or parents, e authorities send them to an asylum named Reformatorio Marchionda Pagliardi, an excellent place for these homeless ones. This institution provided with primary schools and good teachers. Not only do they reive instruction in the common branches of education, but they learn arious arts and trades, such as carpentering, shoemaking, tailoring, eaving, in fact all trades are acquired. The inmates may select any ade adapted to their age and inclination. They are allowed to change ades at any time. At the age of 18 years these persons are discharged, d the time they have spent here becomes a blessing to them hereafter. hey leave the establishment furnished with information of many ings not only beneficial, but necessary to every individual who has to ake a living. They become self-supporting, self-reliant, self-confient. The institution has proved an immense benefit to thousands. ought to be also observed that parents have often sent to this estab-

lishment unruly sons. The parents in such cases must pay for the support of their boys, and they are at liberty to take them home whenever they think proper to do so, but they are not readmitted again.

The institution is supported partly by means of an income from a capital bequeathed by the family Marchionda Spagliardi, and partly by donations, annual contributions from private parties, and also by the profit of the sale of the various goods manufactured by the inmates and sold there.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) The city of Milan has many methods for the distribution of charities, public and private. These methods are about the same. At the head of all the benevolent societies stands La Congregazione di Carità, which gives help to those poor people born in Milan or residing there for ten years. The regulations are very much of the same nature as in all other public charitable associations. The charity is given after an employe has examined the lodging and household effects, together with the means of the family. Taking into consideration the great amount of destitution which exists all over the country the societies can not afford to be generous.

La Società di San Vincenzo de Paoli, a strictly private institution, is sending its members also to visit the applicants. Claims to know precisely what they most need and makes provision accordingly.

La Opera Pia Carolina dei Piccoli Contributent's is acting on the same plan. Being a private establishment the charity is exclusively used for those who are not allowed help because they were not born in Milan or resided there for ten years. This is a benevolent organization which is assisting the poor morally and materially in the form of money, furniture, fuel, condiments, etc.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) As I have already stated, Milan is a city without beggars. Travelers passing through the place often express their surprise and pleasure at this happy state of things. When beggars are really detected they are punished with five days' imprisonment, and in case they are detected a second time they are confined for a month. The persistent mendicants are put into an asylum called Ricovero de Mendescita. Being unable to work they are detained. This establishment is provided nearly with the same kinds of workshops, as those in the Reformatorio, with the same methods regarding the trades to be acquired or professions adapted to age, physical strength, talent; and they are entitled to a portion of the profits of the goods when sold.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) As to the effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities, the answer is—considering the trifling sum in which the charity consists, even when the same person receives from various

societies—it is not to be expected that, apart from being a help to those very poor people who have to work hard to eke out a wretched existence without ever having an opportunity to improve their condition, they must remain indifferent, and therefore the effect is of little account.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(6) As to which has proved to be best system of distribution of public and private charities, looking to the elevation of the recipients of such charities to the condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence and their ultimate rehabilitation as good members of society, a large majority of those who get alms, be it public or private, are women partly alone and those whose husbands are toilers, but so miserably paid that their wives must look for occupation to support the family, it is logical and reasonable to conclude that the distribution of charity has very little moral effect upon the character and conduct, as explained before.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) There is no law which prevents the intermarriages of paupers.

GEO. W. PEPPER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Milan, Italy, April 27, 1892.

PIEDMONT.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT TOUHAY, OF TURIN.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) All persons not possessed of valid and ostensible means of support, and all vagabonds, tramps, or loafers (oziosi) who neglect or refuse to furnish their quota of labor to the general social system, are presumed to obtain their living in a criminal manner. This class constitutes a pernicious example of disorder, and is an element of danger to the public welfare. Consequently all civilized governments have legislated punishments for the misdemeanors of vagabondage and mendicity.

The penal code of the Sardinian Government, promulgated by royal proclamation in November, 1859, by King Victor Emanuel, per articles 435 to 451, inclusive, defines vagabonds or tramps as individuals having no home, domicile, or visible means of support, and who travel round from one locality to another, either in begging their food, pretending to exercise some inadequate trade or calling, or practicing imposture by the means of fortune-telling or divination.

Vagabonds or tramps are punishable by periods of imprisonment ranging, at the discretion of the courts, from three to six months. For

second or ulterior convictions they are liable to five years' imprisonment at hard labor. When foreigners or aliens are taken up for vagabondage or mendicity, they are summarily expelled from the country, and in case they return to the locality they are imprisoned for one year with hard labor.

This Sardinian code, which was compiled on the lines of the Code Napoleon, with some additions and amendments, has been applied, as the general rule of procedure in this country, since the unification, with the exception however of Tuscany, where a special local code remained in force pending the agitation for abolishing the death penalty. In 1865, the enactment of the Article 2215 somewhat modified the rulings against vagabondage, but the changes implied were not very important and the general bearing of the law remained unaffected. The general Italian penal code, in substitution of all preceding enactments, was adopted and entered into full force June 30, 1889. The new code greatly changed the entire system of procedure in Italy, and in conformity with certain principles of law, reputed to be of a higher scientific nature, the ancient rulings against vagabondage were abrogated. The law, as it now stands in this particular, is styled "Law of public security" and its articles Nos. 72, 80, 85, and 94, together with the ruling of November 8, 1889, provided that judicial admonition shall be administered for the first offense. Ulterior convictions of vagabondage are punishable by imprisonment with hard labor, to be followed by assignment to domicile in a fixed locality under police superintendence.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) In every Italian township, village, or city there is established a special committee on charity. These committees are appointed by the municipality of the locality, and consist of from eight to twelve members. Their functions are, the administration and investing of all funds, resulting from donations or legacies, bestowed for charitable purposes. They also inquire into cases of distress and distribute relief where circumstances call for it.

The Italian law makes no provisions for official charity, nor is there any public tax levied for the relief of the poor. The only resources for this purpose are such as may be bestowed by private donations and legacies.

In small towns and villages the local committee on charity cumulates both the administrative and executive functions—this is to say, that the members invest and audit the charitable funds, as well as distribute relief to the poor at their homes. In large cities the committee on charity invests the funds and votes supplies; a special committee on beneficience is appointed which undertakes the duty of bestowing relief. Each member of this latter committee is assigned a certain beat or district for inquiry and visiting. On ascertaining cases of distress they go personally and distribute the relief that they may deem necessary under the circumstances.

SUPPRESSION ON VAGRANCY.

ıe rulings for the suppression and punishment of mendicity are
n in articles 453 to 456, inclusive. These penal rulings pre-

ıons capable of work and found begging shall be arrested and imprisoned
od not exceeding five days. In all cases of repetition of the offense impris-
f one month shall be inflicted. Pleading of exclusion to contravention, on
ds of offering service for hire or objects for sale, is forbidden.
:son found begging in a threatening, vexatory, or repulsive manner shall
d and imprisoned for one month. Repetition of the offense shall be pun-
imprisonment not exceeding six months.
viduals or parents having the custody of children under fourteen years of
permit said children to beg on the highways, or elsewhere, are liable to a
:ee hundred francs and imprisonment for a period of two months. Repeti-
e offense shall be punished by imprisonment for four months.

ɜnalties of imprisonment provided by the preceding articles of
ıl code can, at the discretion of the court, be imposed conform-
h the text of article 22, which provides that punishment can
ted "either by confinement in a penitentiary or by hard labor
ic works."

overnment workhouses or penitentiaries have not as yet been
hed coördinately with the requirements of the new penal codes
ɜcent promulgation calls for a radical reformation of the houses
ıtion. The old prisons are, however, modified and adapted for
lication of the cellular system, and solitary confinement is in-
ɔr convictions of grave offenses. Youthful offenders confined
ıs of correction are not allowed to mingle with or have any
rse among the older prisoners. In all cases prison labor is
ry.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

ıe reclaiming of beggars and tramps to respectability and self-
has ever been a most arduous problem for reformers, and has
yet been practically resolved. Many eminent scientists and
have given close study to the question, and among these the
f Count Marione Petiti, in Piedmont, although dating back to
e considered the best as yet published. The celebrated French
Degerand and Maxime du Camp, have also issued valuable
on this subject. The latter (Maxime du Camp), writing of
and professional beggars, says: "They are utterly lost to all
self-respect, and their practices of mendicity and indulgence
ɜss soon cease to be mere habits in becoming a veritable pas-

recently and in the past century several measures have been
ed to diminish the numbers of this dangerous class. The
success obtained never went beyond mere paliation; the evil
ıs at no time been entirely eradicated.

At the close of the last century King Victor Amadeus of Sicily, governor, and later on King of Sardinia, inaugurated a vigorous crusade against vagabondage and mendicity. It caused the aged and infirm paupers, wherever found begging, to be taken up and placed in asylums, while all others, sturdy and capable of working for their living, were arrested and sent back to their places of birth. The royal edicts of this period were quite sweeping in their prohibitions, and not only was mendicity interdicted, but severe penalties were also proclaimed against all persons publicly bestowing alms, it being held that indiscriminate private charity was the prime cause fostering begging and imposture.

Notwithstanding this and many other attempts at correction in Piedmont, the evil growth of mendicity has only been partially checked, and still exists. On all occasions of popular disturbance, economic or political, it regularly comes to the fore in all its repulsive prominence.

During the reign of Charles Albert (1831 to 1849), and also that of his successor, many asylums were established in the Piedmontese cities for the reclusion of mendicants. The aged and infirm when found begging were placed in these establishments and were assigned certain light occupations adapted to their capacity. In this manner the Royal Asylum for Mendicants was started in 1838 at Turin. This institution is supported by voluntary contributions which have been supplied so liberally by the public that its fund represents now quite a large capital, which is further being continually augmented by donations and legacies. Unfortunately, the rapid growth of this city within the last twenty years, from a population of 150,000 inhabitants to that of 320,000, has brought a corresponding increase of pauperism, so that the large means possessed by this establishment are inadequate to meet its requirements.

Other establishments, auxiliary to the preceding, have been founded and are, in like manner, affected to the diminution of mendicity in this locality, but with this difference, that their general scope is the reformation and education of abandoned children. Experience has proved that there are but slight chances of reclaiming adults from their habits of vagabondage, but excellent results have been obtained from efforts to reclaim and educate children, who, if not rescued from their surroundings, would, from the force of vicious associations, easily pass from pauperism to crime, and grow up to a life of infamy. All the institutes in Turin for the reformation of youth are due to the initiative of benevolent individuals who have devoted their lives and fortunes to gathering in abandoned children and educating them up to a life of decent labor and respectability.

The history of this country shows that the reformation of beggars and tramps has at all times been a subject for serious deliberation by the Government. As far back as the close of the sixteenth century (1580) the Duke Charles Emanuel, of Savoy, founded in Turin the asylum and industrial school called the Inn of Virtue (Albergo di Virtù),

which is flourishing up to this day, and which has always produced good results in the teaching of handicrafts. The College of Artisans, in Turin, on the model of the preceding, was established in 1850 by the eminent philanthropist Cocchi, who further instituted an agricultural colony where abandoned children were gathered in and trained to farm pursuits.

In 1869, a citizen of Turin, the Chevalier Bonafous, left a considerable legacy for the foundation of an agricultural institute, to be called by his name and to be devoted to the reformation of vagabond youth and the training of abandoned children. This institute is governed by the municipality of Turin. Some thirty years previous to the foundation of the Bonafous Institute a poor priest, Don Bosco, whose active philanthropy has achieved wonderful success, started a mission by taking from the street some begging children. Although possessing no fortune and but scant resources, he managed from day to day to provide food and shelter for his charges, and taught them habits of industry and order. This small beginning took root and grew, until now, when the enterprise has developed into a vast establishment containing several thousands inmates, all of whom have been rescued from vagabondage and trained to become worthy members of the community. Of recent establishment, and somewhat similar to the Bosco Institute, is the home for released prisoners (Casa Benefica dei Derelitti). This was founded by an eminent Turin magistrate, who, in the exercise of his judicial functions, had observed that the growth of crime in youthful prisoners was for the most part fostered by their state of ostracism when released from imprisonment for a first offense. The society for the reformation of released prisoners had, for some anterior time, been founded by the King Charles Albert, with the coöperation of his minister de Ambrois, together with that of the Count Franci du Pond and the Baron Cova. The latter, the Baron Cova, was especially successful in the reformation of convicts when released from their terms of imprisonment. He sought them out at the very prison gates, allowed them no chance to fall back on bad company, found them employment, raised their moral status, and, although experiencing some disappointments, succeeded in transforming more than half their number into good workmen as well as honest and well-conducted citizens.

This list might be still further extended were the limits of this report to allow greater mention. There remains the question as to the practical result of the above-mentioned endeavors to uproot vagabondage and mendicity. This query might be considered as equivalent to asking a congress of physicians if their skill and practice in healing the sick would suffice to banish human disease and pain. All that can be said is that special effort produces its own results, but all efforts to suppress vagabondage and mendicity have only succeeded in palliating the proportions of the evil.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(4) This question can only be answered in a general sense. It is generally held that the indiscriminate bestowal of charity has a bad effect, and tends to the still further pauperizing of the recipients. At the very best it is considered as merely affording temporary and ephemeral relief.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(6) The elevation of the mendicants to a condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence can not be effected by mere almsgiving. This can only be brought about as the results of long and continuous training into habits of order and industry, most especially in the obliteration of habits already contracted of lazy shiftlessness and begging.

As for the best manner of distributing alms so as to produce efficient results it is extremely difficult to define. Much depends on the special nature and circumstances of the distress to be relieved, as well as on the zeal and energy of the almsgiver. As a general rule, however, it may be asserted that it is injudicious and, indeed, harmful to bestow alms without visiting the poor in their habitations, so as to personally inquire into and discover their real needs.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

The principle of respect for the liberty of the citizen has ever proved an obstacle to hindrance of pauper marriages. Poverty can not be advanced as a legal impediment to matrimony, nor could the marriage contract be regarded as the privilege of the richer classes. The moral restraint, enlarged upon in the writings of Malthus, as corrective to an increase of population disproportionate to the means of subsistence, can only be exercised by individual prudence, but there does not exist any legislative rule restricting pauper marriages. The only regulation in this sense is that necessitated in the army by the exigencies of military discipline. It is considered that, in case of war, the soldier's efficiency would be seriously impaired by the reflection that his death would leave his family deprived of support. To obviate this no military officer is allowed to marry unless the marriage portion is secured. This portion, or "dot," must amount in an inversed rate to the grade of the officer. For instance, a lieutenant can only marry when the bride can furnish a portion of 40,000 francs. This amount is diminished in proportion as the officer occupies a higher rank in the service.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.

In closing this report I respectfully beg leave to say that I am much indebted to the courtesy of the Baron Luigi Cova, president of the committee on charity of this city, for much valuable information embodied herein.

ST. L. A. TOUHAY,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Turin, April 14, 1892.

SICILY.

REPORT OF CONSUL PUGH, OF PALERMO.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) No country, perhaps, has a greater percentage of beggars than Italy, and in no part of Italy are beggars so painfully numerous as in Sicily, where all public buildings, churches, banks, theaters, hotels, and approaches thereto, as well as streets, promenades, and parks, are teeming with beggars, whose importunities are as constant and general as they are annoying. In fact, so numerous are they and conspicuous that one is given the impression that half the population is begging; but although begging is so prevalent, the class of roving beggars known as "tramps" is unknown here for two reasons; one, that no Sicilian beggar has the energy to traved from place to place, and the other the certainty of the place to which he might go being as thoroughly infested and fully occupied as that from that from whence he came.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) At certain seasons of the year the municipality makes a daily dispensation of soup, those availing themselves thereof being wholly beggars. Neither the church, as such, nor the 4,000 to 5,000 priests of Palermo make any effort in behalf of the poor, but the Sisters of Charity and a few other organizations make house-to-house canvasses for money to distribute to this class. In this manner quite an amount of money is collected and distributed directly to the poor. The most general and disgraceful distributions are those made indiscriminately in the streets to the herds of beggars. This vast multitude of half-starved, half-dressed, filthy-looking beggars is a sad commentary on the national lottery, into which the poor put their last penny, then beg for bread.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) No effort is made to punish, suppress, or even restrict begging; on the contrary, it is so thoroughly countenanced that beggars infest all the churches, interrupting people in the midst of their worship to ask alms, refusing to desist until something is given. They go from one end of the city to the other, rapping at windows and doors to attract attention from within, and shout by the hour at upper windows, hoping to call forth a penny.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) No public or organized effort is made to convert beggars to a condition of self-support. Occasionally, however, some private individual takes up a beggar and attempts to restore him or her, but such instances are rare and the success of the effort doubtful.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) Indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities undoubtedly alleviates hunger and distress, but has no durable effect.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(6) The best charities are perhaps those made through secular organizations, as they receive the largest private contributions as well as subsidies from the banks. There are several such organizations here, some of which are comparatively well organized and managed, but that a Sicilian beggar should ever be rehabilitated as a good member of society is not within the category of possibilities. They appear to be entirely content with their condition and are not grateful for any effort in their behalf beyond the gift of an occasional penny.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) No effort whatever is made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers. It is believed, on the contrary, such restriction would operate badly, that it would result in a diminution of marriage and a like increase in concubinage, already too prevalent here among paupers. Besides, the policy of a government with an army of a million and a half soldiers is not to discourage marriage, as the son of a pauper is believed to make as good a soldier as that of his more affluent neighbor.

There is no law of either church or state placing any obstruction or restriction upon the intermarriage of paupers, not even a frowning public sentiment, therefore marriage among this class is looked upon as quite legitimate and a guaranty against more immoral relations.

HORACE C. PUGH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Palermo, Italy.

PORTUGAL.

CAPE VERDE ISLANDS.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEASE.

1) No greater restrictions are put upon vagrants than persons fol-ing an honorable calling. They are at liberty to follow their craft hout restrictions, unless complained of as having committed a mis-neanor.

2) There are no regular methods employed for the distribution of ıs. Alms in this colony are only given when solicited at the door the vagrant personally.

3) No efforts are being made for the punishment or suppression of beg-g in this colony. All, young or old, are at liberty to follow the call-of beggary as a "profession," or from extreme poverty. If there statute in this colony restricting beggary, it is never noticed by authorities, as the settled vagrant, whether "professional" or in ual need of charity, will solicit with as much freedom from the judge chief of police as from a more common citizen.

4) No efforts are being made to convert beggars and tramps to self-porting members of society.

5) Public charities are only dispensed on rare occasions, such as ıine or like calamities. Private charities are only dispensed to rel-ves and friends.

7) No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriages of pau-s.

HENRY PEASE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Santiago, Cape Verde, May 1, 1892.

RUSSIA.

WARSAW.

REPORT BY CONSUL RAURIE.

1) All people in this country, not excepting the tramps, are iged to possess passports.

2) There are no alms in this country officially distributed.

3) The tramps when found begging are sent to their places of th.

4, 5) Private associations have charity funds, from bequests or do-ions, and distribute the same among the poor, or support almshouses

in large cities for the relief of old people and cripples, all under government control.

To the questions 6 and 7 it can be only stated that Poland has no self-legislation, and all such affairs are in the hands of the police, who are the highest authority in decision.

JOSEPH RAURIZ,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Warsaw, March 29, 1892.

SPAIN.

BARCELONA.

REPORT BY CONSUL BOWEN.

Vagrants and tramps are not so numerous in this city as they are in many other cities of Spain, but even here they are an affliction to everyone except themselves, for they are generally skillful enough to make a good living. As a rule, they are either very young or very old, and not infrequently they are maimed, halt, or blind. According to law they should not be allowed to molest the public, but the law is less mighty than they are. In the park there is an asylum for them, but they dread it as they dread water. Nothing I can say would be helpful to those in the United States interested in the welfare of this class of society.

As a rule, the Spanish people are very charitable. Here there are several societies of ladies and of humane persons to alleviate distress brought to their notice, and several of the papers publish the addresses of those that need help, and receive contributions for such.

HERBERT W. BOWEN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Barcelona, March 22, 1892.

CADIZ.

REPORT BY CONSUL TURNER.

I have long delayed answering the vagrancy circular of the Department, dated February 10, because of a desire to make as complete an investigation of the subject as possible.

Translations of the circular were sent to the civil governor of the province and to the mayor of the city. Their answers are inclosed *herewith.*

Personal study of the question forces me to recognize the Spanish people as ranking among the most charitable of the world, but their charities, as a rule, are so badly organized, or, better said, so unorganized, that they have no effect in building into self-dependency the dependent classes of society.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) There are no laws regulating vagrancy. A "tramp," if a Spaniard, is sometimes sent by the local authorities to his native province, and if a foreigner the consul of his nation is notified of his whereabouts and condition. This I understand to be custom, not law.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) There are no methods employed for the distribution of alms. Their distribution is indiscriminate and does not have as an object anything more serious than temporary relief.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) No efforts are being made for the suppression or punishment of begging; hence it has taken to itself the dignity of a profession, and every village, town, and city swarms with mendicants. Beggars are licensed by city councils, said license being restricted to the poor that are natives of the city's jurisdiction, for instance, the poor of Cadiz are not entitled to a license to beg in Jerez, and *vice versa*.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) So far as I can learn, the energies of society and government are so taken up by other matters that no organized effort is being made to convert beggars and "tramps" into self-supporting members of society.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) The governor of the province and the alcalde of the city seem to think that much good is done by the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities, but, so far as my observation goes, such charity in a large majority of cases in Spain (more than in many other countries) is a premium for mendicity.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(6) The best system for the distribution of public charities in Spain is its orphan asylums and industrial training schools for the young, its homes and asylums for the old, and its hospitals and infirmaries for the sick and disabled. These, however, are greatly overburdened and their usefulness crippled for lack of funds. There are no such institutions as reformatories for the vicious and depraved.

The industrial, financial, and agricultural depression of the country, coupled with the high rates of taxation necessary to meet the needs of the Government, which previous wars have made excessive, brings about conditions with which the present number of the above-cited institutions are not able to cope.

At least a half of the unfortunate classes are dependent upon unorganized and indiscriminate charity. Many of these people, especially child cripples, look forward to nothing else than a life of beggary. This condition of affairs has existed so long that they regard the asking of alms as a divine right and will not hesitate to curse and revile those who refuse to give. It is, in fact, a mendicity devoid of all shame.

I have in mind 2 boys of Cadiz who commenced a life of begging as soon as their mothers could carry them to the street. They are now 18 and 20 years of age. One is crippled in the legs, but otherwise is healthy and strong, fine head, and intelligent appearance. The other was born without fingers; otherwise he is strong, healthy, and bright. They will continue to the end of their days as beggars, because society has not cultivated the powers and senses which they have in abundance.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) The civil governor says that, in place of restricting the intermarriage of paupers, such marriages are encouraged. Strange as this may seem such are the practices which obtain. It often happens that some charitable person, knowing of the whereabouts of several beggars, males and females, will propose to give each couple that will enter into matrimonial bonds a wedding gift of from $100 to $200. This charitable person, who is a woman nine times in ten, does this in the belief that she has made the cohabitation of these people, which otherwise would have continued illegal and sinful, right in the sight of God and the law. Cases are cited where a husband and wife of such contracting have with the present made to them set up a fruit stand or a like industry and earned a living. Such cases are very, very rare however, whilst those that have squandered their little capital and lapsed back into beggary, with a family of children that is taught all the arts of supplicating alms, can everywhere be cited.

I remember to have seen in Seville three families, consisting of 13 persons. The parents wore the brass badge which denoted that they were licensed beggars. They sat close by the walls of the cathedral and set their offspring upon all passers to solicit alms. These children were skilled in all the attitudes of successful supplication.

In Calle San Francisco of this city there is a like family, and in the plaza of the same name another. Perhaps the appended statistics, taken from the Diccionario Enciclopédico, will throw some light upon the futility of learning much of organized charities, except in a negative

way, in Spain, which is just commencing to recover from the misfortunes of the past and is not yet financially strong enough to do all that a charitable and Christian government would like to do.

[From the Diccionario Enciclopédico.]

Forty per cent of the entire surface is uncultivated.

The employments of the population in 1887 were as follows:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Agriculture	4,112,195	932,959	5,045,154
Industries	172,675	40,265	211,940
Commerce	114,295	21,685	135,980
Transportation	160,200	526	160,735
Professions	456,776	48,890	505,666
Arts and trades	582,631	102,782	685,413
Divers occupations	118,362	318,314	436,676
Total employed			7,181,564

Total population, 16,634,345; 4,071,823 can read and write; 11,978,168 can do neither; 5,376 are not classified.

Movement of population: From 1860 to 1870 there were 124,183 marriages which took place in the Kingdom; 612,180 births; 591,049 deaths. Of the births 578,453 were legitimate and 33,687 illegitimate.

In Andalusia there is one criminal for each 573 of the population. In the penal institutions and jails of the kingdom there are 33,260 inmates, and in the charitable institutions 500,000.

R. W. TURNER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cadiz, Spain, July 14, 1892.

INCLOSURES IN CONSUL TURNER'S REPORT.

[Alcalde Genoves to Consul Turner.—Translation.]

ANSWERS TO THE QUESTIONS TRANSMITTED TO THIS ALCALDIA BY THE CONSUL OF THE UNITED STATES, RELATING TO VAGABONDS AND VAGRANCY.

(1) The contents of this question do not belong to the administrative action of a municipality, but to the governing authority of the province.

(2) Municipal charities are distributed by means of commissions that go to the homes of the poor and give them, when they are ill, medical aid, and assistance in cash or in the necessaries of life.

(3) Begging is prohibited, and the right to ask alms in public places is only permitted to those of the city who, on account of their age or physical inability, can not earn a living by work.

(4) None direct, in spite of the studies made in such subjects.

(5) The diminution of poverty and the alleviation, as much as possible, of the distress of the most necessitous people.

(6) To encourage public and private industries, in order to give employment to the able, and asylums, or assistance in their own homes to the old and decrepit.

(7) None.

Cadiz, May 19, 1892.

EDUARDO GENOVES,
Alcalde of Cadiz.

The industrial, financial, and agri[illegible]er.—Translation.]
coupled with the high rates of [illegible] capital:
the Government, which pr[illegible] of 22d instant, I take pleasure in givi[illegible]
conditions with which [illegible] the questions which you submitted to th[illegible]
tions are not able to [illegible]

At least a half o[illegible] in Spain.
ganized and indi[illegible] among the charitable institutions according to th[illegible]
child cripples. [illegible] from private sources are controlled by La Junta [illegible]
This conditi[illegible] distributed as designated by their donators.
ing of alm[illegible] and, if possible suppress it, the provincial council suppo[illegible]
those wb[illegible] old and young, where such unfortunates are secluded a[illegible]
shame. [illegible] them from begging in the streets, to do which they mu[illegible]
[illegible] the city council.

I b[illegible] beggars and tramps to self-supporting members of society, the[illegible]
soo[illegible] of arts and trades, also schools of elementary learning, an[illegible]
ar[illegible] of apprenticeship, where, in a gratuitous and obligatory manne[illegible]
h[illegible] are taught to earn a living.

(1) [illegible] a license from the city council.
(4) To convert beggars and tramps to self-supporting members of society, the[illegible]
are industrial schools of arts and trades, also schools of elementary learning, an[illegible]
different workshops of apprenticeship, where, in a gratuitous and obligatory manne[illegible]
the poor and dependent are taught to earn a living.
(5) The indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities produces [illegible]
moral and material improvement in the poorer classes.
(6) The best system of distributing public and private charities is to make dona[illegible]
tions to charitable institutions, for by increasing the resources of said institution[illegible]
they are enabled to practice their delicate missions, and to build up self-dependence[illegible]
self-respect, self-confidence, and secure the ultimate rehabilitation of those care[illegible]
for, it being understood that the interior organizations of such establishments ar[illegible]
arranged with that elevated object in view.
(7) The restriction of the intermarriages of paupers produces bad effects, conse[illegible]
quently there exist many funds the interest of which is used to make marriage set[illegible]
tlements on such people and to encourage them in contracting matrimony.

God guard you many years.

JOAQUIN DE CASTELLARNAU.

CARTHAGENA.

REPORT BY CONSUL MOLINA.

The class of vagrants generally designated "tramps" are controll[illegible]
or regulated here by a general law of the country and these are ther[illegible]
fore sent by the "alcalde" (mayor of the city council) through t[illegible]
civil guard to their native towns.

At each town or village that they stop on their way to their respe[illegible]
tive native places they are supported by the "alcaldes" with 1 pese[illegible]
each (20 cents).

Town native "paupers" are allowed to beg in the streets and al[illegible]
from door to door, although the law prohibits it. The only efforts the[illegible]
are made here for the punishment or suppression of begging is [illegible]
stated above.

CIRILO MOLINA Y CROS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Carthagena, March 23, 1892.

MALAGA.

REPORT BY CONSUL NEWSON.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) In this country vagrants or tramps are not controlled at all. They seem to be indigenous to the soil, growing spontaneously and multiplying. Without them Spain would be lonesome and politeness would lose its most earnest devotees. Tramps regulate themselves. They are governed by the law of demand and supply, and by playing upon the heartstrings of their fellow-men, enjoy life without its burdens. They have no notes to pay, no bills to meet, because, fortunately for them, nobody will give them credit; no responsibilities, no cares, no debts, no social standing to maintain, so, with crusts of bread and small pieces of fish, they satisfy the cravings of hunger and rest sweetly upon stone steps. A happy child of nature is the Spanish tramp. He is a model for all other tramps; a genius in his line of business, and a perfect success in his calling. The stranger would feel lost without him; the citizen would pick his mournful way through the streets in sorrow if he did not meet him. But, after all, some of these tramps are worthy of aid. They have lost their all. They have no sustenance; they can get no work. A wan wife pleads for bread; children cry for hunger; the brave father seeks in vain for money, and at last he plods the streets a common tramp, piteously asking for a few pennies from this one and from that one to feed his starving wife and his little ones at home. Of course the great body of all tramps are professionals. Who is worthy and who is not? that's the question—nobody knows and nobody seems to care, so the tramp tramps on, becoming bolder in his demands and multiplying like the sands of the sea, while the pockets of the patient public are emptied and the people endeavor to smooth their irritated nerves; nothing is done, however, to arrest the evil.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) Various methods are employed for the distribution of alms. To foreigners, especially, the experience is vexatious and various. Some give a centimo (one-fifth of an American cent) some half a cent, some a cent, some two cents, and so on. Some curse, some push, some kick, some slip into a by street to avoid a meeting, some complacently smile while the tramp tells his tale of woe, some get indignant, some rudely and ungentlemanly throw a penny at the offending beggar's head, much to his disgust, as it offends his sense of propriety; while others become so irritated that they rush to their hotels, lock their doors, pull down the blinds, and mournfully hum, "Home, sweet home!"

The city sets aside a fund of $5,000 each year for the support of the poor, of which the "tramps" constitute a large proportion. Each vagrant has to be registered on the poor book of the city in order to get this aid. If they decline to register their names they are permitted to stroll the streets *ad libitum*. Then there is a large mercantile club here the members of which try to aid the poor by furnishing them soup, so a man may buy five tickets at two cents each, and give to the indigent as he pleases. The tickets are more especially given out by the mayor, but the system does not seem to work well, as out of 16,000 tickets given away, recently, only 8,000 were presented. Many who get their tickets, which cost the purchaser as above, sell them for half value, so the plan has been considered impracticable. Then the bishop gives liberally out of his private purse once a week, and other benevolent parties contribute to arrest this terrible "disease" which is spread all over Spain, and which is an important factor in its existence.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) No efforts whatever are being made for the punishment or suppression of begging, that is, so far as punishment is concerned. The beggar is a privileged character. There are three women "tramps" here who have been strolling the streets for a year past. They are well dressed, behave properly, and are said to belong to a respectable family. Some think they are doing penance, and people have been seen to give them money, but so long as they behave themselves they are not molested by the police. The governor of the province can send back to other towns "tramps" who belong there, but, so far as I can learn, there is no law against begging, although some are dignified by wearing a tin permit on the arm, and this permit only makes them bolder and more aggressive.

Of late, begging has become so terribly annoying that an effort is now being made to suppress it by raising a fund to care for the needy and to put the worthless to work. It is a public movement on the part of the citizens, but has not sufficiently crystallized to enable me to form an opinion of its merits. It is the earnest prayer of all, strangers especially, that it may prove efficacious.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) No efforts are being made to convert beggars and tramps into self-supporting members of society. Children are educated to beg, and infants on their mothers' breasts, unable to speak, whine for a penny. Thus far, all efforts in the line of suppressing begging or beggars has only ended in their increase. In a short morning walk I have encountered ten and fifteen consistent and persistent beggars. They haunt you in every street, on every corner, in every nook; they dog your footsteps and provoke your indignation.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) The effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities are totally demoralizing. A hard-working laborer can earn 40 cents per day. A shrewd beggar can gather, in pennies, $1 per day. Most beggars can gather more in a day than the best workman can get in wages, the highest of which does not exceed 70 cents per day; hence the constant accession to the ranks of the tramps.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(6) As there is no "system" there can be no "elevation," and as there is no elevation, there can be no self-support, self-respect, or self-confidence, and hence there can be no good members of society created from the Spanish tramps. All systems have proved ineffectual, because those who are strong and capable of working are not forced to do so, but are permitted to wander the streets and annoy citizens and strangers by begging.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) No efforts whatever have been made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers, but on the contrary they are the very classes which are the "most" married, as their numerous and woe-begone-looking offspring clearly indicate.

CONCLUSIONS.

In summing up the matter I can say that there are various reasons why so many beggars and tramps are found in Malaga: (1) The climate permits them to sleep out doors here all the year round; (2) fruits and vegetables and fish are very cheap, so that a few cents will furnish a meal for one; (3) wages of common workmen range from 25 to 30 cents per day. Men with families of 6 and 7 can only exist on this sum; (4) a surplus of labor keeps wages down; (5) the beggar can get a living without work, while the laborer is no better off with work; (6) the climate naturally tends to indolence, while begging is an "institution" that has existed in Spain for several centuries, so that there are naturally-born beggars and tramps, who, as polite and persistent impecunious individuals, rival the world in their "profession."

T. M. NEWSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Malaga, April 20, 1892.

SWEDEN.

GOTHENBURG.

REPORT BY CONSUL SHEPARD.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) In Gothenburg, when persons are first found begging by the police or other officers, they are warned to cease such acts and seek employment. If they continue to loaf and beg they may be sent to the public workhouse, and if there they are troublesome or hard to control they may be sent to prison, at hard labor.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) This city of 105,800 inhabitants, for purposes of poor relief, is divided in ten districts, each having a committee of three persons, serving without pay, and each committee can employ a secretary and a visiting inspector. Inspectors visit the homes of the poor in their districts and report their needs to the committees, which generally meet every two weeks to decide what relief shall be given. In cases of pressing need inspectors may give aid at once without waiting for committee action. In cases of great destitution and sickness, when proper attention can not be given in their abodes, the committees or the police may order patients taken to the poorhouse hospital.

A "Central Charity Association," a private or unofficial body, most of whose workers are women and all unpaid, has lately been formed here, and aims at collecting facts from the several private charities, and to act in concert with other communities, especially those in the country, in the hope to secure as far as possible the giving of aid where it is most needed, and to provide labor in the country for the great numbers who are continually coming into the city from country districts, depressing wages here, and largely becoming paupers, while in many places in the country it is almost impossible to obtain the necessary farm labor. This association issues to members a number of tickets according to the amount of their subscription, which may be given to such persons as the members may choose, and upon which meals may be obtained at appointed public places sometimes, but only on presentation of tickets, which show that the case has been investigated and by whom. The association intends to establish a woodyard, where employment may be given to such as seek work, and also keep a register of persons wanting laborers and of those wanting employment.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) No efforts on new lines can be noted in the direction of more severe punishment, as the limit would seem to have already been reached. In addition to what is stated in answer to the first question,

it may be said concerning present methods of punishment, that there is a special committee connected with the workhouse (poorhouse), for investigation and examination of cases of begging, and the police may act in the same way. Through either of these agencies beggars are sent to the poorhouse, when the manager decides whether the vagrant shall be turned over to the police as a tramp, and, after trial, sentenced to penal servitude, or returned to the poorhouse as unable to earn his support.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) As to efforts for the conversion of "beggars" and "tramps" into self-supporting members of society, there is not much to be said. Only punishment has as yet been employed to suppress beggars and tramps. The parents of begging children are punishable for their acts if they are able to control them. The school board and the poor-relief board are watchful that children are kept at school, hoping thus to make them as far as possible useful members of society.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) Here in Gothenburg there is a very strong conviction that indiscriminate giving of aid, both public and private, has done much to encourage begging. And it is believed that the many private charities here have been great inducement to poor people in the country to come and settle here, of whom many become paupers.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(6) Present systems have not proved satisfactory in any respect, and least so in improving the morals of the poor. The dispensation of charity has apparently done very little toward stopping begging. On this account strong efforts are being made to turn public sentiment toward changes and reforms of present methods of distribution of charity, and the "Elberfeld system," which has been tried to some extent in the city of Malino, in this consular district, will probably be used in some districts of this city. The "Octavia Hill system," reported so successful in London, and tried in a small way in Stockholm, also has its advocates.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) Nothing has been done to prevent the marriage of paupers.

CHARLES H. SHEPARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Gothenburg, June 7, 1892.

SWITZERLAND.

ST. GALL.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL BYERS.

SWISS CHARITY SYSTEMS.

Possibly no people in the world give more to charity in proportion to their means and population than the Swiss. Their efforts to aid the poor and the unfortunate are usually organized and systematic. Of miscellaneous and indiscriminate giving there is little, as such methods are regarded by the people as doing almost as much harm as good. They are always ready and willing to help, but they wish to know that the help given is for a proper purpose and given in a way to do the most possible good with the least waste and extravagance. They also wish to feel that their charity shall not foster idleness and dependence on others for a living. Of course the systems as to charity differ in the various cantons, because the people themselves differ in circumstances, laws, and often in languages. The Federal Government leaves the regulation of these things almost wholly to the states or cantons.

The officials of these cantons are usually wide awake to the situation and enact laws compelling organized action. Perhaps the methods practiced in St. Gall canton will afford as good an example of Swiss ideas in this respect as any. The laws of the canton of St. Gall were modified as to the treatment of the needy and the unfortunate as recently as 1890.

Formerly it was not an extraordinary or uncommon thing here, as elsewhere on the continent, to get rid of paupers and the like by shipping them across the ocean. The Federal laws stopped all that years ago. Of course this kind of an outrage on friendly governments may occur occasionally still, but it is contrary to law, and public opinion is opposed to it.

For the sake of brevity I will state some of the first principles of the St. Gall laws regulating the giving of charity, the disposition of tramps, drunkards, etc. First as to (bediorftige Durchreisende) tramps:

(1) Twenty-two stations are established by law throughout the canton where needy tramps may get a dinner or a night's lodging with supper and breakfast.

(2) Assistance in the way of money must not be given at these stations, neither must liquor be dispensed.

(3) The dinner consists of soup and bread, with either cheese or sausage added. Supper and breakfast to consist of bread with either soup or coffee.

(4) No assistance of any kind to be given those who will not perform work when offered them. All such found begging will be turned over

the police for imprisonment without food. Neither will any assist-
ce be given to intoxicated persons.

5) Every station must also be provided with an intelligence office,
aid tramps with good advice, and to secure employment for them if
ssible.

6) Persons who wish to receive meals or lodgings at these stations
ıst be bearers of papers showing permission for the same; they must
o have with them a passport, and (Heimatschein) showing in what
vn they have the rights of citizenship.

7) Whatever aid is furnished must be carefully indorsed and stamped
one of these papers, and the date, number, etc., be entered in the
›ks of the station.

8) No tramp can receive meals or lodgings at these stations oftener
ın once in six months. (They are not free boarding houses, as are
ny of our Western jails.) The applicant for meals or lodgings must
o be able to prove that he has been engaged at work somewhere
:hin the past three months.

9) These stations are kept under the strict supervision of the canton
thorities, to whom exact returns and accounts are made. The ex-
nse of keeping them up is borne by the different communes, except
0 per cent bonus from the canton and voluntary contributions. The
ıult of this system seems to be that there are comparatively few
ımps in the country.

DRUNKARDS.

A few words as to the legal care of drunkards in this canton.

1) Persons given to intoxication may be confined in an institution
the healing of drunkards.

2) They may be kept confined in these institutions nine to eighteen
nths. In case of return to drunkenness the term in the institution
be prolonged.

3) Drunkards are confined either by their own request, request of
ardians, or by the direction of the commune authorities; but an offi-
l medical certificate, showing the man to be a drunkard and the
cessity for his confinement as a cure, must be produced.

4) A guardian may be appointed for the drunkard during his stay
the institution.

5) The cost for keeping a drunkard in an institution will be collected
t of his own property. If he has no property the poor fund will be
awn from and the canton will assist also. An institution or drunk-
ds' cure at Ellikon, on the Thur, accepts patients at the rate of 600
ıncs a year. The poor pay only 28 cents per day. It has been proven
Switzerland that drunkards can be cured in these institutions and
emselves and families saved from ruin.

ORPHANS.

The system of caring for destitute orphans, homeless children, etc., is not greatly different from our own. Orphans' homes and asylums are provided, though in exceptional cases they may be placed in private homes, but remain under the direction of the authorities.

The children of parents who accept or need aid for themselves are, as far as public care of them is concerned, regarded as orphans.

In the orphans' homes the young are to be kept entirely separated from the grown at meals, at their work or play, and in their rooms. The canton helps the communes to build orphan asylums and poorhouses to the extent of 25 per cent of the cost.

FUND FOR THE SICK (NOT CITIZENS).

Every commune is compelled by law to have an organization to secure aid and care for those sick who happen to be living in the commune and are yet not citizens. A small weekly tax, less for women than for men, is levied on the members of the organization (or Verein). Members paying this tax are, in cases of sickness, cared for in the hospitals free of expense.

Citizens of the communes, of course, have their hospital privileges without contributing to this particular fund.

There is also a Verein or society against begging in St. Gall. Half the people of the city are members, and their payment of certain small amounts weekly entitles them to send destitute beggars to the office of the society, where their cases are officially investigated and help given in proportion to their wants.

ANSWERS TO CIRCULAR.

(1) Tramps are controlled by the cantonal and local police, as set forth in the laws for tramps.

(2) Alms are distributed by the officials of the law, by societies (or Vereine), and by private individuals. The general principle is to give food, clothing, and shelter, but no money. Foreigners or persons not citizens of the country found begging are sent out of the canton.

(3) Begging is in general against the law, and permission to ask for alms is never given. Giving beggars only the food absolutely needed for the day, compelling them to work, and forbidding their return, except at long intervals, discourage the "trade."

(4) No special efforts except attempts at repression of beggary seem to be made toward making the beggar a self-supporting member of society, unless it be the efforts to find him employment. As honest workingmen are often pushed to find employment, owing to extreme population, the success in finding professional beggars' work can not be very great. It may be added here, however, that, as the Swiss people are a proud, industrious, and hardworking race, begging does not exist here to any such extent as in other continental countries.

(5) Wherever charity has been given indiscriminately, the result has been bad and laziness and dependence have been encouraged.

(6) An organized system of aiding the poor has been found to be the only successful plan, but this organized system must bring with it the education of poor children, an overthrow of drunkenness, and the abolishing of thousands of saloons and low "dives." Another aid in lifting up the poor is found here in not trusting wholly to government regulations and aid, but in going personally to the unfortunate man or woman and by sympathy and human kindness encouraging him or her to make a new effort. The Swiss official system is believed here to be good as far as it goes, but it must be supplemented by individual sympathy, kindness, and encouragement.

(7) As to the intermarriage of paupers, the law forbids such unions. Public opinion, however, is not unanimous as to the propriety of the law. Many people are of the opinion that the prevention of such marriages increases immorality and the number of illegitimate children. Others assert that if paupers can not marry they will hurry to get themselves out of the dependent and hindering position.

S. H. M. BYERS,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
St. Gall, March 18, 1892.

ZURICH.

REPORT BY CONSUL CATLIN.

THE SWISS TRAMP.

In a consideration of the "tramp" question from a Swiss—or in fact om any Continental—standpoint, it is essential that the American ader should bear in mind one fact exercising a vital bearing upon its eatment, namely, that the European tramp is not a nameless nomad, ving one name here, and another there, as circumstances or caprice ay dictate, but in ninety-five cases out of a hundred is provided ith an official document of some kind, setting forth his name, age, ationality, domicil, and occupation. This fact, coupled with the furier consequent fact that, in case of need, he may at any time be reirned by the authorities to the township, domestic or foreign, where e belongs, and which is bound to support him when so returned, astly systematizes the management of the tramp in Europe, and reuces it to a simple piece of machinery, working, as a rule, noiselessly nd well.

It may further be preliminarily stated, that the greater part of the ast pedestrian army passing through here, ostensibly or really seekng employment, and dependent, during its brief stay, upon public

charity, does not consist of irreclaimable vagabonds who have cut loose from all social ties, abandoned hope, and reconciled themselves to the idea of living upon charity for the remainder of their days. Scarcely 5 per cent of the so-called "tramps" assisted here correspond to these conditions. Fully 50 per cent of those presenting themselves are what we would call journeymen laborers, or underworkmen of inferior qualifications, seeking work from place to place, and ready to work if opportunity offers; 30 per cent, again, may be classed as good workmen, whom the exigencies of the times have forced to seek employment elsewhere; 15 per cent represents the element of those who by ill-health, drink, vice, or general worthlessness have fallen to a stage where nothing remains for them save to wander and hope, while the remaining 5 per cent, as previously stated, represents a residuum of tramps, pure and simple. It may further be added that only 2 or 3 per cent of this wandering army are of the female sex.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

The system of controlling vagrants in the canton of Zurich is simple and thorough. The canton is subdivided into eleven districts, and at various central towns and villages in these relief stations, numbering fifty-four in all, are established for the affording of maintenance to needy travelers. The system is called "Natural-Verpflegung," which, translated, means "maintenance in kind," that is to say, food, shelter, and, in some cases, clothing are issued. The money for maintaining this system is provided, partly by charitible contribution and partly by appropriation from the canton. The cantonal budget for 1891 appropriates 12,000 francs for the purpose, to which are further to be added, according to law, the sum of 6,000 francs as the proceeds of the aclohol tithe. In the year 1890 the total sum expended in the canton for assisting tramps, including both the appropriation and contributions from private charity, amounted to 55,081.59 francs, or about 3 cents expense per capita of population. Every needy traveler desiring food and shelter is required to apply at the relief station in or nearest the point where he may happen to be. From the moment he does so he can be sure of protection from hunger and shelter against the elements for twenty-four hours, and of either procuring employment or being sent on to the next station, and there similarly provided for and passed on. The plan is, if work can not be found, to keep them moving, and to take care that they do not become a permanent burden.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

The needy traveler, on applying for relief at any one of the stations mentioned, is first asked to show his papers, and give his name, occupation, and last place of employment. He then receives a maintenance ticket which, on presentation at some designated lodging house,

entitles him to dinner, or to supper, lodging, and breakfast. As the regulation relating to the administering of aid to needy travelers covers all the necessary facts in the case, I have translated it, and give it here entire, viz:

(1) House and street begging are most stringently prohibited within the district of Zurich, as indeed everywhere within the entire territory of the canton of Zurich. (Title III, section C, paragraph 37, and following, of the cantonal poor law.)

(2) The control offices created for carrying into effect the "law pertaining to the maintenance of needy travelers," as adopted by the townships of the district of Zurich are required: (*a*) To examine the identification papers of needy persons applying for assistance; (*b*) to hand such persons a maintenance ticket, good for the corresponding lodging station; (*c*) to keep, according to the form provided, an accurate list of such tickets issued, *i. e.*, of the recipients; (*d*) to keep a list of such applications for workmen as may be made to them, and to allow parties looking for work to have access to the same; (*e*) to receive volunteer gifts of clothing, keep a list of the same, and distribute them to the needy according to their best judgment.

In accordance with the agreement entered into between the Aid Society and the Volunteer Poor Association, all the outlying townships, and, if need be, the nearer rural townships, are required to make out their maintenance tickets on the city. In the former case the charitable societies mentioned will honor the tickets without charge; in the latter case, for a compensation mutually to be agreed upon.

(3) On presentation of a ticket issued by the controller of relief, and only good for the date of issue, the holder thereof can obtain at the lodging station either a dinner, or breakfast and supper, together with a night's lodging.

Lodging-house keepers, or managers, must keep uniform control books, in which those persons obtaining relief are to be registered according to name, sex, occupation, age, and place of residence. The custom of the obligatory stamping of the identification papers of travelers is suggested.

(4) The possession of satisfactory identification papers entitles the holder to obtain ticket.

(5) Lodgers are required to show their papers to the superintendent for the purpose of control, to study to maintain a decorous and quiet behavior, and to obey his directions. They may order spirituous beverages in very modest quantities at their own expense.

(6) As a rule, relief can be afforded once at most during a period of three months. Moreover, the distance between any two stations used successively must be at least two hours' walk.

(7) The board of directors shall arrange with the lodging-house superintendent as to what the meals shall consist of, and how the compensation of the latter shall be fixed.

(8) On the return of the maintenance tickets the aggregate amount of compensation due the lodging-house keeper shall be paid over to him by the questor at periods to be previously agreed upon.

(9) The questor renders a quarterly account to the board of directors for the committee, and the latter, after approving the same, provides for its publication.

(10) The questor must furnish 2,000 francs security. His compensation, as well as that of the township controller, will be fixed yearly by the committee, on motion of the board of directors.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

Notwithstanding the fact that the law permits or tolerates begging in no shape, manner, or form, its suppression is attended with no little difficulty, owing to the two causes usually prevalent, namely, the negli-

gent toleration of individual authorities and the ill-judged sympathy of the charitable. Any beggar, wherever found, may be arrested, brought before the police, and if necessary locked up, or, if a stranger, sent back to his home. Yet in spite of these regulations beggars are not infrequent, though they may sometimes appear in the guise of peddlers of lead pencils or matches, and, as such, wander from house to house. No means are omitted for asking the public's coöperation in the suppression of begging. The city ordinance of Zurich, which relates to the subject, reads:

The collection of alms (begging) is forbidden, and involves the consequences prescribed in paragraph 38 of the poor law, viz, being brought before the police authorities with eventual imprisonment and the return of the offender to the place where he belongs.

The issue, whether by authorities or by private persons, of general written recommendations for collecting aid (begging patent) is prohibited under penalty (paragraph 37, poor law).

The attention of our fellow citizens, and especially of those who give alms to beggars, is herewith called to these regulations, with the remark that at present nourishment and shelter are provided for impoverished travelers in every town in the district, and that the efficiency and usefulness of this system are based upon the assumption that help and sustenance are to be rendered only and exclusively at certain fixed points, under the coöperation of the authorities, and are to be refused at all other points within the district. In Zurich such places are the following, viz:

(1) The Souphouse (No. 5 Upper Zaeune) for obtaining noon soup.

(2) The Volunteer Poor Association (67 Schipfe) for assignment of evening soup, lodging, and breakfast.

(3) The Volunteer Poor Association (67 Schipfe) for further assistance through the secretary of said association.

(4) The Home Refuge (in the Augustinerhof) for persons applying late in the evening, after the close of the office.

Beggars evincing no desire to be informed in regard to these places are to be viewed with suspicion and should receive no assistance of any kind. On payment of a trifling fee, small placards containing the foregoing instructions, to be hung up at the house entrance, may be obtained at the police office in the Fraumuensteramt.

AMELIORATION METHODS.

The paternal system of government in Switzerland, whereby the township becomes, as it were, a family and assumes responsibility for the care and, if need be, even the nourishment of each of its citizens at public expense, precludes to a great extent the necessity, or even the possibility, of putting in vogue any general system for the reformation of those needy travelers who merely chance to be passing through. Zurich is ready to feed Berne's or Basle's needy wanderers for a day or two and send them on their way again, but does not feel bound to go into missionary work for their "conversion" while en route. On the other hand, over those of her own people who have taken, either temporarily or permanently, to a wandering life, she exercises, through the officers of the towns to which they respectively belong, a never-failing, fostering, supervising care. No matter how far they may stray away, *their names* are still on the town books, the town covers them with its

egis of protection, as a hen covers her little brood with her wings, and the authorities are always prepared in an emergency to bring them home again or care for them at the township's expense. Under these circumstances, there comes naturally to be a premium set upon good behavior and a good character the town is, of course, more promptly disposed to assist a worthy than an unworthy son who has taken to roving. Nor are conditions of reform lacking in the form of earnest village pastors, charitable associations, temperance societies, and the like. Yet these are not for the conversion of the tramp alone to a self-supporting member of society they work, however, in that direction. There is some talk of establishing near here at no distant day, for the rehabilitation of this class of wandering workmen, what is known as a "Workmen's Colony," similar to those already organized and in successful operation throughout Wuerttemberg and other parts of South Germany. The project has not as yet taken form, however, and the amelioration methods thus far in vogue are limited to local ones already named and to an employment bureau mentioned further on.

INDISCRIMINATE ALMSGIVING.

In the course of a recent conversation with the secretary of the Volunteer Poor Association of this city, I put to him the Department's question, viz: "What are the effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of private charities?" "The demoralization of the recipients," he replied, "and the demoralization of our system at the same time. I estimate that the alms given away annually here in Zurich to beggars and other needy persons by well-meaning but injudicious people amount to from 120,000 to 150,000 francs. Now, this sum is actually diverted from the regular official channels of distribution, and much of it not only goes to unworthy persons, but is squandered by the recipients. It is distressing to reflect how much good could be done and is not, how much suffering could be relieved and is not, by the aggregate sum thus frittered away through indiscriminate almsgiving at house doors and in public places.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

There is absolutely no legal hindrance to marriage in Switzerland on the ground of poverty. Any single male and female of lawful age, though possessing nothing more than the rags that cover them, are entitled to contract wedlock under the provisions of article 54 of the Federal Constitution, which reads:

The right to marriage is placed under the protection of the confederation. No hindrance to marriage can be based on denominational grounds or the indigence of one or the other of the parties, on their conduct, or on any other police ground whatever.

As this law, however, is federal, covering all Switzerland and possessing, therefore, no local phases or conditions peculiar to Zurich, its further consideration in this report is unnecessary.

RELIEF DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED.

The latest annual report made by the secretary of the Zurich Freiwilligen Armenverein contains an interesting and instructive chapter on the subject of the relief of tramps, and the difficulties encountered therein. I quote therefrom as follows:

Every week, and sometimes daily, it occurs that individuals or families, with little or no means whatever, journey hither from abroad in the expressed hope of finding work, or something to earn, and with the unexpressed hope, if it comes to the worst, of getting the means of living through Zurich's widely known benevolence.

Instances are not single; on the contrary, they are typical where a father of a family applies, announces that he arrived with his wife and children a day or two ago, and that he has found no work, but that will be all right. For the moment, will the secretary be so good as to pay the freight due on his household utensils, which are lying at the station—often it is the case he has none—and provide him and his family support for a fortnight or so?

As experience shows that these people usually belong to the completely frivolous and abandoned class, who have found it impossible to remain at their former domicile or who even come directly out of some poorhouse or from being supported by some other town, it would certainly be unjustifiable to extend to them the hand of relief, allow them to settle here, and thus at once augment the expenses of the association.

What humanity dictates, that we do also for such people as these. We give them shelter and nourishment, but after that send them as soon as possible, and if need by help of the police, either to their homes or to their latest domicile.

We turn now from those arriving with an intention to stay to those merely passing through, and in so doing approach a question of far greater scope. The dimensions which the wandering of journeymen and other laborers from place to place has assumed of late years, the degeneracy which has partially crept in among them, the annoyance caused the population by their begging in houses and on the streets, and, on the other hand, the protective measures adopted by society and by the government against these evils—such as maintenance in kind, offices for furnishing employment, workingmen's colonies—all these are sufficiently known, and it is not the place to speak of them more fully here.

Only a few brief words concerning the point of view governing our conduct of the system of furnishing maintenance in kind to needy travelers, which system we, in conjunction with the Aid Society, attend to for Zurich and its outlying townships.

One does not need to have studied the subject with open eyes very long without arriving at the opinion that the wandering of workmen in great part is not a voluntary but a compulsory one—a necessary result of the fitful production of our industries.

In consequence of favorable combinations arising in the national or possibly the world's market, for some entire branch of industry, or even for one or several large establishments belonging to such industry, production in that branch is largely increased for a proportionally short period—say for a few months, a half year, or even a year—and during such period the required labor is attracted from all sides to certain given points. Let one reflect, for instance, on the work of furnishing an army with new guns, building a fleet, constructing and equipping a railway line, and so on. As soon as the emergency has passed the greater part of the labor which has been attracted thither is of no further use.

The contractor is obliged to discharge them. In individual industries—for instance, the clothiers—this irregular production is the rule. The clothing manufacturers, large and small, and even the retail establishments, have their stock of regular working people, and twice a year, in "the season," as it is called, their number s largely increased by the employment of a number of hands, who afterwards can ıo longer, or only to a very small extent, be retained. Thus constantly, year in 'ear out, a large number of discharged working people are obliged to wander and ook for work elsewhere.

Now, such people as these, who, without any fault of their own, have become superluous, we meet in this wise: They receive fair maintenance not merely for one day, ıut, if necessary, for several days; also, in case of need, clothing, and where they an show that they are sure of obtaining work at some other place, and can commence at once, we send them thither by rail.

But of course it is not to guard against this class that the society has been obliged o protect itself by introducing the system of maintenance in kind. Such protective neasures are rather directed against those who, without need, join the stream of ompulsory wanderers, and then make no further earnest efforts to obtain work, but ,bandon themselves to idle loafing and professional begging. The number of these ınd their degeneracy are a serious matter. They no longer desire work. It daily ıappens in our employment bureau that people of this class simply refuse employnent, and openly avow that no other means for prolonging their existence now ies open to them save begging.

Many small tradesmen in the country request us to send them workmen, but it is ı hard matter to send them anyone. Begging in the city is more agreeable than work in a dull village.

Such are the tramps who, with all sorts of possible and impossible stories, go rom house to house, and whose lives are constantly made easy and pleasant by the thoughtlessness and folly of mankind.

The well-meaning but unthinking giver should only know that he not only gives his money away to no purpose in bestowing it on such people—be the amount what it may—but that he is assisting a social cancer, and is simply supplying the rod by which himself and others are chastised.

EMPLOYMENT BUREAU.

Allusion has been previously made to an employment bureau for supplying work to needy travelers. This bureau, which is operated in connection with the Freiwilligen Armenverein, and is located in the same building with it, has already done much good, although for various reasons it has not accomplished all that was expected of it when organized seven years ago. It was originally contemplated to constitute it a sort of a labor exchange where employers seeking help and laborers seeking employment could meet on common ground and make their arrangements. The plan certainly appeared promising. All varieties of workmen, more or less skilled, were constantly offering not only Swiss, who compose fully 55 per cent of tramps assisted, but also Germans, who constitute 30 per cent; Austrians, 8 per cent, and Italians, French, and other nationalities making up the balance. But the difficulty was here: Employers mistrusted labor engaged in connection with the relief of poverty; laborers, on the other hand, mistrusted situations to which they were recommended by charity. Add to this the fact that the majority of the applications for hands came from the coun-

try—that is, from small rural towns and villages—and that the tramps are, as a rule, unwilling to exile themselves thither so long as there is any chance of getting employment in town, and it will be seen to a great extent why the employment bureau has not proved the success that was desired. In the female department, it may be added, the results have proved considerably more satisfactory than in the male department. Nor can it be denied that, all in all, good work has been done in both, as the following table from the last published report shows, viz:

	1887.		1888.		1889.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Applications for work	549	1,186	488	12,38	526	1,140
Applications for hands	687	1,531	636	1,639	670	1,295
Situations provided	354	792	305	820	382	700

TRAVELING BOOKS.

In concluding this report I wish to make mention of an excellent feature of the system of relief for tramps in vogue here, namely, the issue to each of what is known as a "relief traveling book," a sample copy of which is sent herewith for inspection by those interested. These books are of pocket size, are numbered serially, and on the title page one reads as follows:

Relief traveling book of the Swiss Inter-Cantonal Union for providing maintenance in kind. This traveling book is issued to ——, of ——, born ——, A. D ——, a —— by occupation, by the relief station at ——, and by reason of his possession of the following identification papers, viz, ——.

At the bottom of the page the party to whom the book is issued must sign his name. On the second page follow the conditions under which the book is issued, viz:

(1) Every relief traveling book costs 10 centimes.

(2) Maintenance in kind will be extended only to such needy passers-by as (*a*) possess recognized identification papers; (*b*) can show that they have been employed somewhere within the last three months. Relief will not be extended to (*a*) drunkards, (*b*) those who do not accept work offered them.

(3) Only once within every half year will a dinner or lodging with supper and breakfast be granted to the same person at the same station.

(4) Every instance of maintenance granted to a passer-by is to be entered, with place and date, in the relief traveling book kept by the union. The receipt of a relief traveling book is to be recorded on the official identification paper of the recipient. Any such person unable to show his book receives no further relief.

(5) In case of any abuse of relief, attempted or proven, as well as of any violation of the lodging-house regulations, the party at fault is to be handed over to the police; the same rule holds with regard to any passer-by possessing no papers, or none lawfully recognizable.

(6) This book contains 28 numbered pages.

These 28 pages are each divided off into 18 numbered squares of the size of the official stamp of any of the relief stations. In the

first square, when the book is issued, is imprinted the stamp of the station issuing it, and so each succeeding station at which relief is subsequently given imprints its stamp in serial order, thus constituting the book in itself a complete record of its holder's wanderings, from the time he receives it until, if he tramps long enough, its 450 spaces are full.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

In conclusion, it may be stated that the working of the entire system in this canton is admirable. It is in the hands of intelligent, faithful, and philanthropic persons, who have for years made the tramp question a study, and, although the stream of needy humanity passing through this city—some 5,000 per annum—does not compare in dimensions with that to be found seeking food and lodging in most of our large American cities, it is yet large enough to test the efficacy of a system which I believe worthy of the careful consideration of the representatives of associated charities everywhere.

GEORGE L. CATLIN,
Consul.

U. S. CONSULATE,
Zurich, March 19, 1892.

TURKEY.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL-GENERAL ALBERT, OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

(1) Vagrants or "tramps" are generally arrested by the police officers and very often imprisoned; all suspect characters are exiled or given up to their respective consular authority if they are foreign subjects.

(2) Alms are distributed without any method, on constant application and especially during the winter or after a fire or conflagration, famine or epidemic. In some instances a certificate from the mauhtar parish sheriff as to the true destitute condition of the applicant is required in Christian communities.

(3) No efforts are made and many beggars, some of them in an awful condition, are strolling the streets.

(4) No efforts are being made to convert "beggars" into self-supporting citizens.

(5) Public and private charities have good effects, as far as education is concerned, among the Christians and Jews, as most of the public schools and colleges of the Americans and Greeks are supported by donations.

(6) The system that has proved successful in some respects among the Christians is that of public balls, concerts, lotteries, etc. The Turkish

Government, however, now allows only a limited number of tickets in every instance to the Christian associations; and this system is gradually failing, to be replaced, perhaps, by free and voluntary subscriptions and donations among the Christians and Jews. The Musselmans enjoy largely the privilege of being supported by their Government.

7. Marriages of paupers, like all other marriages, are controlled by the respective religious chiefs. No intermarriages between Turks and Christians are allowed, but there are many of the latter who are converted to Mohammedanism mostly for being able to marry with Turks. No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers as long as they obey their religious regulations.

WM. ALBERT,
Vice-Consul-General.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES,
Constantinople, March 16, 1892.

THE UNITED KINGDOM.

ENGLAND.

BRISTOL.

REPORT BY CONSUL LATHROP.

Two inclosures accompany this report of the highest possible value. The one is an extract from a report made by a committee of prominent citizens of Bristol some years ago touching exactly the questions raised in the circular.

The other is a copy of an address delivered in Bristol on the 5th of April of this year by the Rev. William Mann, precentor of the Bristol Cathedral and secretary of the local society for the organization of the administration of charity. Though the conditions obtaining at the present moment are not as they existed at the time of the committee report, nevertheless Mr. Mann's address may be said to bring the report up to date.

The two together present a complete view of the subject of vagrancy and pauperism in Bristol and of the efforts made to reduce the evils. Made by trained observers, deeply interested in the subject, their conclusions are entitled to the highest possible consideration and must possess a distinct value to all earnest inquirers into questions fraught with such importance to individuals and to the State. I hereby acknowledge the freely extended courtesy of the Rev. Precentor Mann, if I summarize the reports and present answers here, it is only that I may follow the order of the questions of the circular, and not with the intention that I can add aught to the information conveyed in the inclosures.

(1) There are no distinctive local regulations controlling tramps. 'hey are entitled under the general law to shelter for the night in the asual ward of the workhouse. In return for this, however, they must 'ork in the morning; and this fact, taken in connection with the fact ıat a strict discipline is maintained, prevents tramps from seeking ıelter in the ward when the weather in fine, or when the necessary ennies can be secured for the bed in the common lodging-house.

(2) Official relief is extended to the needy under the general law of ıe land by the poor-law officers. In an ancient and wealthy city like ristol there are also extensively endowed charities and large annual ıbscriptions. There is also the usual more or less indiscriminate alms-iving. It is a fact that in the city of Bristol, with a population not reatly exceeding 200,000, there is annually expended in charity a sum pproximating the almost incredible total of $1,000,000.

It must be remembered, however, that this includes expenditures for ɔluntary hospitals, charity schools, and the like; but there is reason ı know that alms are given without system, to the loss of the honest ɔor and the pauperization of many.

It costs to maintain the local workhouses and in extending out door ırish relief, $270,000; the local endowed charities have an annual in-ɔme of about $250,000; there is annually subscribed for charitable ırposes a sum approximating $200,000; and, lastly, a careful and con-ırvative estimate of the sum expended in almsgiving puts the amount ; $250,000, making a total of $970,000. Giving aid in doles is still the ernicious practice of some societies, and some other equally injurious ethods remain as a heritage from mediæval times.

(3) It is an offense against local laws to beg, and there is occasion-lly an arrest and conviction; but the result is the same here as else-here. After a few days' confinement the vagrant is out of jail, and he ısumes at once his shameful life.

(4) Voluntary effort tries to reclaim individual tramps and beggars, ıd it is alleged that there have been instances of success. The Sal-ation Army is the only large organization that has attacked so dis-ɔuraging and hopeless a task upon any scale of magnitude and with ıy large general plan. They have gone about the work in the only ay possible; that is, by unremitting personal association and sym-athetic attention. If they were as wise as they are ardent, results ıight follow. Many interested in the question are waiting, with sus-ended judgment, to see what the social wing of the Salvation Army ill accomplish.

(5) The effects of the indiscriminate dispensing of public and private ıarities in Bristol has been as disastrous as such a course must lways be everywhere. In proportion as Bristol has been negligent ı administering those large sums contributed by its generous-hearted itizens, so in proportion have its people living on the ragged edge of ɔverty been emasculated and deprived of self-respect and energy.

Bristol finds itself now with a disproportion of paupers and a settled conviction that the wrong people often benefit by its largesse. From time to time there is spasmodic desire to organize the administration of charity, but the elements to be commingled are conflicting, jealous, and suspicious.

(6) The attempts to adopt a system for the distribution of public and private charities which shall elevate the recipients to a condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence have been in the direction of a centralized organization through which all applications shall pass and which shall make thorough and sympathetic investigation into the merits of each case. The idea is that the centralized organization shall not itself be so much a distributer of charity as an adviser to other distributers; and it not only should and does report upon the characters of, and the conditions surrounding, those in distress, but advises as to the particular kind of help needed to restore permanently the applicants to a self-supporting position. At the present moment a vigorous effort is being made to induce a more general coöperation among dispensers of charity and to secure a larger utilization of the services of the Charity Organization Society; but the difficulties seem almost insurmountable in the way of that effective combination of interests that shall prevent improper bestowal and overlapping of funds.

(7) No legislation exists for effectively preventing the intermarriage of paupers. The small legal fees collected for marriage are a deterrent, to the extent that some very poor people simply take up housekeeping together. A restraint on marriage of any sort simply means the raising of the illegitimate birth rate; and the only way of preventing the hereditary criminal and the hereditary and confirmed pauper from reproducing their kind, is to render them physically incapable of propagation, a remedy sufficiently drastic and one that the moral sense of the world refuses even to consider.

LORIN A. LATHROP,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bristol, April 22, 1892.

CONDITION OF BRISTOL POOR.

Extract from the report of the committee (1884) appointed to inquire into the condition of the Bri[illegible] poor. Inclosure 1 in Consul Lathrop's report.]

QUESTIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON ALMSGIVING, ETC.

(1) From what classes of the community are the bulk of the persons who ma[illegible] begging their means of subsistence derived?

(2) What are the habits of life of such persons when not engaged in begging?

(3) What, if any, organized efforts are made for their improvement, and wi[illegible] what result?

(4) What parts of the city do they most frequent for begging?

) How are they housed?
) Are their children brought under the influence of the school board?
) Would the abstaining from almsgiving to all beggars be advisable?
) Does the habit of seeking aid by petitions to restore losses, or to be set up in ll businesses, tend to demoralize the petitioners?
) Does the giving of alms, without careful inquiry, by private persons to the : with whom they are brought into relation, tend to injure their self-depend- ı?
0) Does it induce other poor persons to seek aid in the same way?
1) Is there in your parish or district much overlapping of the various philan- pic and religious agencies in charitable relief? What remedy would you sug- ?
2) Do you think that distribution of small sums is beneficial to the poor?
3) What is your opinion of the moral effect on the poor of crêches, children's ers, soup kitchens, etc.?
4) What is your experience of loans to the poor, and of the good or evil effect of pawnshops?
5) Do many of the girls of the poor go into domestic service? If not, is it from t of clothes, or why?
6) What is your observation of the frequency of early marriages, and of their ence as a cause of poverty? Do you find it usual for many to save before riage, so as to make due provision for its responsibilities?
7) Have you any experience of migrating poor (other than tramps), who settle ı time in Bristol, and then move elsewhere? Where do they chiefly come from?
8) What agencies do you know of (other than the Post-Office Savings Bank) which be used by the poor for saving? Are they much used by the poor? If not, why ' What would you recommend on this point? Do many of the poor subscribe provident dispensaries? What is your experience of friendly and insurance eties in relation to the poor; as of benefit clubs, children's burial clubs?
9) What would you think a fair figure at which to put the average weekly earn- of many of the poor?
0) How much of the poverty of the poor of Bristol is caused by continuous lack mployment and low wages, rather than by deliberate idleness or inability to in remunerative work from their own unfitness for it?
1) What effect has continuous lack of work on the character of the poor? Upon men, upon the women, upon the children?
2) Would emigration be a means of raising, if not the elder, the younger men women amongst the poor? What charitable agencies are there in Bristol in direction? Are they sufficient? Is local provision for aiding emigration de- ble?

SUMMARY OF EVIDENCE.

ie classes from which the begging community is recruited are variously given he repliers. Their answers include the following:
) Unskilled laborers.
) Brokendown men of all classes, especially tradesmen and clerks.
) Artizans whose firms have closed, or who have been dismissed in consequence iling trade, and who are too old to compete with younger men in other lines of

) Soldiers discharged under the short-service system.
) The criminal classes. Men and women under the ban of a conviction.
) The bodily incapacitated, *e. g.*, lame, blind.
) Hereditary beggars, those who have begging in their blood.
) The weak-minded and half-demented.
) The dissipated, idle, vagabond, drunken, shiftless of every class, the question ng one rather (says one) of character than class.

(10) Working men, formerly honest, but who through the easiness of obtaining charity have dropped away into the less onerous life of begging. Men made beggars by indiscriminate alms.

The begging community, as a rule, live in common lodging houses, whence they issue in the morning on their begging rounds, which include Clifton, Redland, Cotham, and other suburbs, some of them going by tramway or train as may best serve the occasion. The principal streets of Bristol are also frequented by them. They receive charity from the middle as well as the upper classes, and the poor give often freely to them. The city of Bristol and suburbs is said to be mapped out by the most proficient beggars, who know to a copper what each street will yield, and fees are charged to new and immigrant beggars for information on local charitable geography. During their day's rounds, or on off days, beggars spend their time in loafing about public houses, in dissipation, and sometimes in criminal pursuits. In the evening the common lodging houses receive them, where they tell the stories of the day's adventures, and (as has been specially stated)* scenes of gross obscenity and ribaldry close their day.

Other beggars do not live in common lodging houses; they are of a more solitary or morose temperament. They sleep at night in hovels, or where they can, begging alone, unrecognized by the rest. Other beggars rent half-furnished rooms for a time; others live more permanently in one house, subsidized by out-door relief or parish or city charities, and go more respectably about their begging trade, getting regular weekly doles from benevolent persons (unaware of each other's gifts), or from religious agencies. These make as good a living out of begging, and quite as idly, as the most tattered vagrant.

St. Jude's, St. James', and the Pithay, are said to be the residential headquarters of beggars; and it may be added that one writer says that there are not half so many of them as there were twenty years ago.

There is very little organized effort in Bristol to check begging. Much is admitted by almost all repliers to be needed, specially in the way of overlapping of relief. "It is difficult," one writer says, "to curb individual action of kindly persons." "It seems a pity," says another, "that in this parish, where every street has its visitor, no reference of begging cases should be made before relief is given." All alms, says another, of those who have not time to make inquiries should be intrusted to those who have such opportunities, and more than one suggests that some central agency of coöperation and registration is needed in Bristol. The Charity Organization Society is said not as yet to have reached very widely in its influence.

The children of the most abandoned of the begging trade are rarely reached by school board influence. They are cunning in evading the visitor, and if pressed can quickly migrate from one part of Bristol or one common lodging house to another. One school-board visitor states that during the last year he has brought up before the magistrates under the industrial act, 1880, 10 children, 6 of whom have been sent to industrial schools, and 2 parents have been sent to gaol for a month for sending their children out begging. Indiscriminate almsgiving, without inquiry, is by nearly all repliers condemned. Two repliers make protests, one that to abstain altogether would be "too drastic," and the other that if alms were refused the poor would go to the parish and rates be increased. Giving without inquiry is the support and often the source of worthless begging and imposture, the more thoughtful replies urge, and where alms are given in small doles this is not less likely to be the case. These are rarely beneficial. "In cases of sick and aged or real distress from want of work they are of more help than many in better circumstances may understand," says one, "but even then only with great care and after inquiry, and if adequate and likely permanently to benefit the recipient."

* The narration of particulars on this point is not fit for this report, but the scenes alluded to are often in the presence of children of beggars, thus contaminated, or rather habituated, to impurity and vice from earliest years.

What is true of indiscrimate almsgiving is equally true of petitions and subscriptions to them. They are, such petitions, in nine cases out of ten, false, or if not absolutely false, so bedaubed with false coloring as to be practically deceptive. They ught never to be assisted without direct reference to some one who knows the whole ase. They are often written in public houses and by quasi-professional petition rriters, and the money obtained spent in the public house. Petitions, even more han begging, pauperize; and the petitioners, even if deserving, are demoralized eyond all proportion to the benefit they receive. They tend to self-delusion. Perhaps in a first instance there may be some ground for seeking aid, some crisis after hich the petitioner thinks he will be independent, but it is too enticing a means of etting money to cease. He tries once, he tries again, and so degrades himself. 'etitions of a working man amongst his fellow workmen for burial expenses for wife r child are said to have an especially degrading effect. Indeed such petitions for urial aid are asserted most often to end in drink. Thus, to sum up, it is said that oo ready alms and aid without inquiry have only one end; they pauperize and tend o dependence. They hinder all Christian work which aims at raising the whole man o noble effort. "This is why so many in this parish have become paupers. They ave depended on the alms of the Clifton people," says one. "The Cliftan poor who eceive most from indiscriminate charity," says another, "are the least self-dependent."

Nor does the evil of indiscriminate charity end with the immediate receivers. It empts and taints their neighbors; the temptation is visible and certain; the beggar returns with his spoil, and his neighbor, who sees it, is tempted to go a-hunting.

When once tried it corrupts the whole character; more money, it is found, can be nade by adroit and false begging than by unskilled but honest labor, and so gradually, perhaps, the latter is displaced by the former, and indiscriminate charity orrupts with its fatal support another victim.

What is true of indiscriminate charity in a personal way, in small gifts, is also lmost more true in wholesale aid in crêches, children's dinners, soup kitchens. The two former of these a considerable number of the replies think excellent in heir benefits to infants and children; but this only when given with care and judicious watchfulness as to the real need of the recipients. Without this, all say, they lo more harm than good and all urge that without the element of personal friendhip in their administration they are injurious and tend to produce a spirit of reiance on others. Many, indeed, object to them on other grounds, viz, that they pauperize in transferring burdens which should be left upon parents to other shoulders; that by encouraging facilities for women's work they remove them from heir own duties, to perform what are their husbands'; and that they induce a better class of poor, who have a jealous desire to share all benefits offered to a lower class, to seek what they themselves have no right to. Soup kitchens, almost all replies condemn; except in a time of signal distress they are not even appreciated, let alone other issues, by the poor.

Loans, whether personal or by loan offices, are very doubtful good to the poor. If personal they are rarely returned and so degrade the borrower; they keep the poor poor and lead them to trust in borrowing. "I never lend; I should say goodbye to the borrower if I did," is the experience of most repliers. Others more hopefully say that in time of depression of trade much good may be done by loans, though they are bad in effect in easier times, and that they have known many such loans repaid; others that they are only good if worked by a society of some kind, and not lent by individuals. And one suggests that there ought to be a church-loan fund in every parish; another says that loans of blankets are specially useful to the poor, and that if carefully supervised the lending of them may be at little loss to the lenders. Loans from loan offices are said to be ruinous from excessive charges, some of them to be "legalized swindles." Pawnshops are commented upon by repliers with remarkable contrast of views. One writer says that the "pawnshop

and the public house are Siamese twins," fatally and inseparably connected. Others, that in times of distress they are often "the poor man's only friend," without which he could not get along. All admit that they are apt to tempt their users to too great dependence on them; beneficial only if applied to in signal emergencies, and not systematically frequented; and that in these last words, coupled with pawning for drink, lies the danger.

Few children of the more abandoned classes of the poor are fit for domestic service; they are too ignorant, uncouth, and undisciplined. Of the better classes few choose it. The factory, with its free evenings, Saturday afternoons, and Sundays, offers them too tempting a comparative liberty of life. The wages, too, of the factory come into use at an earlier date and in a larger sum than the wages of a "first place." This helps the home and conciliates the mother to the daughter's preference. Town mothers are said, moreover, to be poor trainers of children for domestic service. They are too busy themselves, perhaps at work away from the home, and many opportunities of teaching which country life affords are not present to them. Mistresses are often to blame for the ill-repute of domestic service, asserts one writer, as a calling in life. They are (for the children of the poorer classes do not always get into good hands) inconsiderate, coarse, violent. "I think," adds another, "that when one knows the situations many girls get, and their drudgery, they would have done better to choose factory life."

Early marriages, all repliers state, are a most certain "cause of poverty. Excuses are made for them. "When a girl or boy have no home, what are they to do? It seems the best plan to make a home together for one another." "It prevents other evils." "From the moral point of view it has its advantages." "If too much attention was paid to saving, the poor would never marry. Such saving habits, too, are often rendered impossible by filial habits, the young son or daughter spending in support of their parents money which they might otherwise save." "They are better, these early marriages, than spendthrift harlotry." These excuses for early marriages need to be deeply considered and are full of enlightenment as to there being two sides to the question. Against them, however, may be put the bad health as well as poverty induced by early marriages; the life-long struggle, depressing all possibilities of education and even of common decencies, that early and increasing families enforce on parents; the puny, ill-fed children which spring from them. They hardly ever save, these boy husbands and girl wives; a little furniture, perhaps, is bought, and that is all, but in not saving for the future they are not singular. Few of the poor of any age regard the future.

There is a considerable migration of poor from one part of Bristol to another, from exigencies of work, or to escape rent or school-board visitor, or, as says one, "to the shame of a profession of temperance or religious amendment made to minister or clergyman and soon broken." There are a good many immigrants from the country, who come up and seek for work and shift about looking for it. A nondescript number of poor migrate from part to part for no very explicable reason.

The Bristol Savings Bank and local penny banks are considerably used by the poor, the latter* generally in connection with some church, or religious, or temperance agency.

Provident dispensaries are said to be increasingly used and to be doing good work. There are also many useful clothing clubs. The post-office savings banks are said to fail amongst the poor (1) in assuring privacy; (2) in quick and easy management.

Benefit societies, if dissociated from public houses, are excellent, but care needs to be taken in their choice. Many have been rotten, and men have put their money into them and the clubs have failed; so now men are afraid to join others. Advice to the poor as to the character of such clubs is much needed. More personal service of well-known and respected voluntary agents in collecting the savings of the poor, is

* In one parish of 400, 80 are depositors in the parochial bank.

s suggested, would do good; and clubs, especially burial clubs (these often tending, t is said, only to a wasteful display, if nothing worse), are very expensive in their management. But the latter are specially successful amongst the poor, from the fact that he agent calls for the periodical payment from them assiduously, whilst in most savings clubs, under philanthropic management, the poor have to go and deposit their money. Careful and discreet management of penny banks is, one replier says, necessary, and care should be taken to have them open at suitable hours, and frequently, nd not to hurry the depositors in paying in. On such minor points the success of uch institutions greatly depends. Saving at all, though the habit of it is happily creasing amongst the poor, has been, and is, a hard task for them in these times of rade depression.

The average weekly earnings of the poorer classes, *e. g.*, laborers and those unkilled in trade, is not ordinarily more, it is said, than 14*s.* a week; and, of the prevlent poverty in Bristol, lack of regular employment is the main cause. Idleness nd improvidence, indeed, say some, now exist, and of a deliberate kind, but much f this has been caused by lack of regular employment. Nothing breeds idleness ike uncertainty of work. In Bristol, at the present time, idleness and lack of work re, it is asserted, equally balanced as causes of poverty. That lack of work in Bristol is a real fact, all say. Hundreds even of skilled hands are daily in the streets. The children of out-of-work classes are said to be brought up with no idea of maintaining themselves. The effect of continuous lack of employment is said (and rell said) by more than one replier to depend upon the character of those who suffer rom it. It renders all (how can it help doing so?) discontented. But some it deresses to bad issues. It drives them to a thriftless, "don't care" life; it pauperizes hem; it hardens them; it makes them savages; it sends them to the public house, o the workhouse; it urges them, "for hunger is a sharp thorn," to beg, to borrow, o steal. With others it is not so. Lack of regular employment brings out noble ualities, of mutual help, and parental responsibility. Men deny themselves in ways hey never would have thought of, and women accomplish miracles of household nanagement which often astonish themselves. On children the lack of work falls rith most pitiable effect. When the parents' moral character fails under the weight f poverty, there is all the effect of evil example; and even the nobler example of arental self-sacrifice can not quite take the place of lack of food and the frequent mpossibility of a continuous education.

The spirit is wanting, say many, for emigration in Bristol; and if the spirit is vanting it is waste of power to force people away. "Why should we send the best lasses out of the country and keep the worst?" say others. We should only drain ff the best of the examples amongst the lower class and leave the residue more elpless than ever from lack of their influence. But on the other hand, one says, 'even in regard to those who seem from antecedents most unlikely to get on, some ffort should be made. Emigration breaks, or may break, the continuity of lack of pirit and effortless habits of life. Life is perhaps as hard in the Colonies or America as in this country, but it has more and more hopeful openings." In result almost ll repliers recommend emigration for the younger members of the lower classes, and hat they should be stimulated to it by advice and encouraged by assistance. Careul discrimination, it is advised, should be given to each individual case. Young narried men and women, it is thought, would be hopeful subjects for emigration. Funds for emigration should not be gifts, but loans, to the emigrants. The Bristol Emigration Society and the Canadian Home Society are said to be the only ones in Bristol which deal with the subject of emigration, and both efficiently; but many hink that much more might be done advantageously to the poor in the way of emigration and that these societies need more liberal help and wider development.

QUESTIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON ENDOWED CHARITIES.

(1) What income exists from endowments for charity to be dispensed by the Bristol municipal charity trustees, society of merchant venturers, corporation, church vestries, or other church bodies, chapel officers, other trustees, associations.

(2) Is the application of endowed and other charities desirable when applied to almshouses, annuities, gifts, doles, loans, occasional assistance, education.

(3) What is the effect upon the persons who are qualified to apply for endowed money gifts, and do so?

(4) Do they betake themselves to applying at the same time for many different gifts; or move from a poor parish to one more richly endowed for the sake of being qualified to receive its gifts?

(5) When obtained, how are the gifts used?

(6) Is your experience that rents are higher in parishes where gifts are plentiful.

(7) As the endowed charities are chiefly confined to the ancient parishes of the city, is there any marked difference between the moral or physical condition of the poor residing there from that of those residing in the localities beyond the ancient city bounds?

(8) Would organization formed by the support and coöperation of the above named bodies, for the purpose of receiving and giving information relating to charities and applicants for them, be possible and desirable?

(9) Would the poor be benefited by an application of the income distributed in doles and gifts being applied otherwise, say to education or annuities.

(10) Do you know of any lapsed charities, and what becomes of them?

SUMMARY OF REPLIES.

The amount of endowed charities in Bristol is very large. Their management is in various hands; clergy and church wardens, nonconformist bodies, special trustees, the corporation, the Bristol charity trustees, etc. Figures concerning these charities have not in all cases been afforded the committee by the managing bodies. The charity commissioners have kindly assisted the committee and supplied them with much information which was lacking.

That all the endowed charities of Bristol are used for the best interests of the poor it is impossible from the evidence of the replies, to believe. In the opinion of almost all those who have communicated with the committee, much of the money distributed to the poor might be spent to better advantage.

The following are some suggestions:

First, it is said that too much money is spent on almshouses, and that it might be better utilized in annuities and pensions. Almshouses, it is urged, are not the best method of providing for old people. They are, to begin with, says one, "picturesque but expensive." "The old," says another, "have their uses in the world and it never was intended they should be isolated." "Many prefer," says another "to live with their relations who can look after them; and a pension enables them to do this without becoming an expensive burden." The management, too, of almshouses, is difficult, as well as costly. Fit choice of inmates is not easy, nor is it easy to maintain discipline amongst them; and without such fit choice and discipline, almshouses become "concentrations of harmful elements, rather than means of doing real good." Thus many think that the closing of many almshouses, the sale of their sites, and the utilization of the funds in annuities are improvements in charity economy greatly needed; though others, a minority, say that for women, widows or single women over 60, almshouses are most useful; and that old people with annuities are not always happy with their relations, who get hold of their pension money, and stint them of due comforts. Annuities, if the cases of the applicants are carefully investigated, are said more generally to be an excellent method of helping the broken down and aged, specially of the lower middle class. But

annuities need careful watching, and should be granted only for limited periods and renewable at discretion. Gifts and doles are by many condemned as mischievous ways of spending endowments which should not be frittered away in small benevolence but reserved for more efficient and permanent benefits. Others think that investigation and care make even small gifts of timely and real use to the poor. Such gifts differ in their effect, no doubt, according to the character of the recipient; but the poor are very often kept by the very hope of them from despair, and by their help from the workhouse, and if not actually in so extreme a case, they add small comforts to their dreary lives." In poor parishes where church alms are small, they take their place, and the clergy and others are able to distribute them, when they would have nothing else to distribute in times of sudden and depressing need. Loans are thought by some to be a method of utilizing charity money of very doubtful expediency, "resolving themselves wholly or partially into gifts." But others say that loans are a very proper object for charity trustees to consider; that trustees of a charity could manage them better than individuals, and that by extended system of granting loans "in a business way after careful investigation," "and rigorously exacting repayment," much good might be effected, specially among the middle classes. Many think that no better way of spending charity money can be found than education; and some deem "that seeing that now the rates undertake in great measure the education of the young," adult education is the direction in which endowments may find fittest sphere of usefulness, thus permitting youths and men of the working classes to continue their education in the evening, specially in the way of the more technical branches of it. Whilst others say that education being the duty of the State, application of charitable endowments to it would be no less confiscation, "than to apply them towards the extinction of the national debt."

Amongst various ways in which charitable endowments might be more usefully spent than they often are now, are suggested: "Emigration," "aids to thrift," "a benefit club" for the working classes of Bristol, under responsible management of well-known persons whom they could trust; grants or loans "to help the poor recovering from illness or when leaving the hospitals, by convalescent letters, or payment of their expenses for a short visit to the seaside or country. And some think that endowments might fittingly turn in the direction of the recreation as well as of the education (of which indeed it is part) of the people, just as the endowments of the great educational centers, the universities and public schools, are used in this way.

As to the moral effect of the distribution of endowed charities on the recipients, none speak with unmixed satisfaction. Many say that generally speaking it demoralizes and pauperizes. The poor, qualified by residence in parishes in which endowments exist to receive their benefits, look upon them as a right, apply for them regularly, irrespective of need, and accept them with thankfulness. Jealousies and discontents grow round their distribution. The thought that they will fall in induces unthriftiness: debts are run up to be paid off by them; and if not this, being something beyond and outside the ordinary sources of income, they are deemed fittingly applicable for some unwonted and needless expenditure. Many waste their hearts in expectancy, and their time (years may be), better spent in efforts to earn their living, in the continual pursuit of gifts. The adroit, professional charity hunters get the lion's share of them. The industrious old people find themselves too late. Much of the money, and even gifts in kind (quickly sold or pawned) is spent in drink. "The night," says one, "on which the Dolphin and other societies' money is given, is the night when the public houses do the biggest trade." So some say: but others speak more hopefully, asserting that the charitable endowments of Bristol are of more abundant and substantial benefit to the poor. The larger ones sustaining honest labor in emergencies, and old age in its failing powers, and even the smaller ones (appearing to richer persons useless) help for a limited time to "miti-

gate the evils of grinding poverty." One replier, in defense of endowed charities, writes: "Endowments are an inheritance of the poor, just as property bequeathed is an inheritance of the rich. The poor learn to depend upon endowments just as the rich do on their fixed incomes. Many people in poor parishes waste the money derived from endowed charities: as rich people in Clifton do their wealth. The endowments of the poor are no more frequent cause of idleness than are the dividends of the richer classes." "Unearned bread in every class is apt to make the dignity and duty of labor forgotten."

Rents are not higher in those parishes where charities abound. This is popularly supposed to be the case, but on no real evidence. The ancient city parishes have greatly decreased in population.* City improvements have pulled down the dwellings of many of the poor, and the character of the occupation of others has changed. In this sense the rents have risen, in parishes rich in endowments, but in no other. In those ancient parishes which still contain some very poor districts in which the lowest class of poor live, the rents are not exceptionally high, nor, as is sometimes alleged, are the low physical and moral tone and habits of their inhabitants due to the mischevious effect of distribution of endowed charities. This is an exaggeration. The causes are rather the general conditions of life of the poor congregated together in the center of an ancient city.

Many men and women apply all the year round, and all the town round, for whatever gifts may be going, but the decrease in the population in the city parishes has made it easier for the trustees of charities to inquire into the cases of the applicants. In some of the larger parishes rules have been made insisting on a proved term of residence as a qualification of eligibility for parish charities, and probably there is a considerable reduction in the number of persons obtaining double and treble charitable gifts. However the case may stand about the overlapping distribution of charitable endowments, there is great need, most repliers assert, for some coöperating action between the trustees of the various charities. That such would be difficult to set on foot, all agree. But vested interests stand in the way. Yet some think that if it was made clear that the parochial nature of the charities would not be disturbed, and that each body uniting in such action would be left free in its choice of the special recipients of its own charity funds, coöperation in interchange of information so far would be at once practicable and useful, and possibly might lead to further advantage. Others warn that no coöperation, or organization (if such was to come about) into one center, of distribution would do any good unless the machinery of such distribution was improved. Rather, say they, a central charitable authority would be likely to become purely official, and destitute of that knowledge and sympathy which alone makes charity beneficial. Even now, says one, when charities are administered by men of certain social standing, like the Bristol charity trustees, it is "only those who can command some social influence who succeed in making their claims successfully heard." Hence many deserving cases are often quite ignored, and a feeling produced in the minds of the applicants that favor, not merit, guides decisions. What is specially wanted, it is further urged, is that some agency could be formed which, in some impartial and disinterested way, with local experience, and conversant with the character and habits of the poor, should investigate cases locally, and thus the decisions of charity trustees be influenced wisely and responsibly. As it is, trustees now sometimes ignore such local information, though they formally request it. "I was asked," writes one, "to give information as to the merits of a number of applicants from my parish who had sent in petitions for aid from one of the large charitable bodies. Having given full particulars, I was astonished to find that the most worthless applicants were the most successful, and many of the best passed over." One other replier advises as the real remedy "a sweeping change," that all the charities should be amalgamated, and the managing

* In 1871 the population of the ancient city parishes was 62,662, in 1881, 56,962, a decrease of 5,698, or about a tenth.

rustees appointed by the ratepayers—"the fierce light of public opinion would keep the trustees up to the mark, and new schemes could be prepared for new wants."

Many urge, in a less ambitious way, that some minor efforts might be made to amalgamate small dole charities in certain localities, and so to make gifts more substantial and likely to be of permanent benefit to the recipients, it being found that "the larger the gift, the greater, ordinarily, the sense of responsibility in the recipients as regards its use." A scheme of this kind in St. Nicholas, obtained by the late Canon Girdlestone many years ago for the charities of the parishes, is said to work most efficiently for all concerned. Some charity trustees, in parishes where there are not many poor, cross their boundaries, it is reported, and assist less fortunate ones. If such wider use of parochial charities was more general, much more good, it is suggested, might be done by them.

In most of the city parishes there is said to be a very general feeling among the old people that a large amount of gifts have been allowed to lapse. Actual example of such lapsing or misapplication has been laid before the committee. The feeling among the poor about these lapsed and misapplied charities is so widely spread, that it is urged a Government inquiry would be desirable, if only to satisfy the minds of the poor on the subject.

QUESTIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE PRESENT SYSTEM OF CLASSIFICATION OF THE INMATES OF WORKHOUSES AND OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF OUTDOOR RELIEF.

(1) Are the occasional paupers separated from the habitual?

(2) Are the schools entirely separated from the workhouses? Ought they to be so, in your opinion? To what extent is the boarding-out of children practiced?

(3) Are the women who go into the lock wards for the first time separated from the other women?

(4) Do the same women repeatedly go into these wards? Are women of good character obliged to occupy the same rooms by night, and to associate by day with prostitutes?

(5) Upon what principle, and to what extent, do the guardians generally give outdoor relief?

(6) What is the general disposition of the guardians as regards applying the workhouse test? In what cases is the workhouse usually offered? When offered as a test what are the results?

(7) For what time is outdoor relief given to the various classes—(*a*) persons receiving relief as sick, (*b*) able-bodied widows, (*c*) single able-bodied women, (*d*) able-bodied men receiving relief in the labor yard, (*e*) old and infirm?

(8) What proportion of relief allowed is usually in money, and what in kind?

(9) What does the "kind" consist of?

(10) Upon what principle do the guardians generally deal with deserted wives?

(11) Upon what principle do they deal with contributions from pensions and benefit clubs?

(12) Is relief granted in aid of earnings, and to what extent, and in what class of cases?

(13) Have the guardians or their officers any communications with the charities within their unions?

(14) What is the ordinary scale of relief to the various classes of paupers?

(15) What are the numbers of the able-bodied, sick, aged widows, and children now receiving relief?

(16) Are women with illegitimate children given outdoor relief?

(17) What is the amount of relief granted to a widow and to each of her children?

(18) What effect, in your opinion, has outdoor relief on the independence of character and energy of the recipient? What on his neighbors who observe him in receipt of it?

(19) What effect has permanent outdoor relief to aged persons on the piety and kindly sense of duty of their grown-up children?

(20) What steps are taken to get contributions toward the maintenance of indoor paupers from their richer relatives?

SUMMARY OF REPLIES.

The evidence on the effect of the poor-law system on the condition of the poor has been confined almost entirely to the effect on the poor outside the workhouse. The clerks of the three unions, the Bristol Corporation of the Poor, the Barton Regis, and the Bedminster unions, each of which unions contains parishes within the city boundary, as well as many guardians fully cognizant of the work of the poor law in Bristol, have favored the committee with most instructive communications, whilst many citizens of Bristol, not themselves guardians, but with many opportunities of watching the influence of poor-law relief on its recipients, and deeply interested in the subject, have also given the committee the benefit of their experience.

It may be well in this summary of replies, first to set out the similarities and differences as reported to the committee in specific points of the administration of relief by the three unions, and, subsequently, to state the opinions of the repliers more generally as to methods of relief, and the influence of relief, particularly of outdoor relief, on the poor at large.

On the first point, then, it is said, that the habitual paupers, practically permanent inmates of the workhouse, are in none of the unions separated from those who may be called "occasional"* inmates, driven perhaps by calamity or labor emergency to a residence of a limited period—a week or a few days—into the house. The two classes, and their children, are mixed together in daily and nightly intercourse. In the Bristol Union the schools are in a separate building, but one which forms a part of the workhouse, and they are said to be "pervaded with the workhouse atmosphere." In Barton Regis they are part of the workhouse. In Bedminster they are in a separate building, but within the inclosure of the workhouse. In Bristol the guardians at present board out 30 children. In Barton Regis the average is 15. In Bedminster 2 at present are boarded out. In the Bristol Union there is no separation between a woman who goes for the first time into a lock ward and other inmates who have been there more or less frequently. In the Barton Regis and Bedminster Unions it is the same. In the Bristol Union there is no serious attempt made to separate the women of good character from prostitutes. In Barton Regis Union they are in separate wards at night, but in the day there is virtually no separation. In the Bedminster Union women of good character are obliged to occupy the same rooms by night, and to associate by day, with prostitutes.

In the Bristol Union outdoor relief is given on "no specific principle." The guardians are divided for the purposes of outdoor relief into sections, and these sections administer it by turn and dissociatedly. "Sometimes applicants refused relief one week are the next week granted it by a different set of presiding guardians." "There are no general or fixed rules." The granting of outdoor relief is "practically left to individual guardians." In Barton Regis there are specific and fixed rules† printed and published. In Bedminster there are none such, but the guardians are

* Of course by these "occasional" inmates, "tramps" are not meant, for whom due "tramp wards" are provided."

† The board of guardians have determined, as far as practicable in the administration of relief, to adhere to the following rules:

(1) That outdoor relief be granted for a fixed period only, not exceeding three months, to persons between the ages of 16 and 60 years, unless such persons have children under 13 years of age, or there be some special circumstance in the case.

(2) That outdoor relief shall not be granted in any case, unless the relieving officer has, since the application, visited the home of the applicant, and has recorded the date of such visit in the application

said usually to "allow liberally where the illness of a temporary character of the man is the cause of the application." In Bristol the workhouse test is not in general favor with the guardians and is applied at their discretion. The results of offering it are said to vary; generally the workhouse is not accepted.

In Barton Regis there are specific and fixed rules printed and published, and the workhouse is ordinarily only accepted in cases of absolute destitution. In Bedminster, though frequently applied where the character is bad or the paupers have friends who, on pressure, might assist them, and in this way effective, the workhouse test yet lacks regularity in its enforcement. In Bristol the time for which out-door relief is granted in other than permanent cases varies. There is no fixed rule. The minimum is one week, the maximum thirteen. The sick receive relief according to the doctor's certificate; able-bodied men in the labor yard, from week to week; old and infirm, from four to thirteen weeks, after which the case is put on the permanent list. In Barton Regis the time of relief is determined by specific and fixed rules. In Bedminster the sick receive relief according to the doctor's certificate; single women, only from week to week in exceptional cases; able-bodied men in the labor yard,

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and report book. Cases which the relieving officer has not had time to visit shall be relieved by him in kind only, or by an order for the workhouse.

(3) That on every application for relief inquiry shall be made by the relieving officer if the person applying has any property or income whatever, or relations of sufficient ability who are legally liable to contribute to his or her support; and if any, they be required to afford such relief as they are able.

(4) That the relieving officers shall be required to make at least monthly visits to the homes of all persons receiving relief on account of temporary illness, and to visit all other paupers at least once a quarter.

(5) That as the recommendations of medical officers for meat and stimulants are regarded as equivalent to orders for additional relief, they must in all cases be accompanied by a report from the medical officer, in the usual form, setting forth the particulars of each case ascertained from personal inquiry.

(6) That medical extras shall not be continued, in the case of any pauper, for a longer period than three months, except by special permission of the whole board.

(7) That medical extras shall not be granted in the case of permanent paupers, unless under special circumstances, and by order of the whole board.

(8) That in every case where the workhouse is ordered, medical relief be discontinued and an intimation to that effect sent to the medical officer by the relieving officer.

(9) That single persons between the age of 16 and 60 years shall not be relieved except in the workhouse, unless under special circumstances and by order of the whole board.

(10) That when a widow (with children under 16 years of age), having borne a good character, applies for relief, she and her children may be relieved in money and bread or by taking some of her children into the workhouse.

(11) That persons of bad character and women with illegitimate children shall be relieved only in the workhouse.

(12) That any person receiving out-door relief being detected as a common beggar, or who shall knowingly make a false statement to the relieving officer, shall be relieved only in the workhouse.

(13) That when relief is granted by way of loan the parties receiving it shall be specially informed at the time that their future earnings will be attached for repayment of the same, and shall be served with a notice to that effect by the relieving officer.

(14) That every orphan or deserted child requiring relief shall be taken into the workhouse, except under special circumstances and by order of the whole board.

(15) That to a man or woman aged or infirm or totally disabled there may be allowed a sum not exceeding 3*s*. per week; a man and his wife, under like circumstances, a sum not exceeding 5*s*. per week; and these sums shall not be increased, except under special circumstances and by order of the whole board.

(16) That a sum not exceeding 4*s*. per week be allowed for each "boarded-out" child.

(17) That the wives and families of men in jail shall be relieved only in the workhouse, except under special circumstances and by order of the whole board.

(18) That the wives and families of soldiers and militiamen shall be relieved only in the workhouse, except under special circumstances and by order of the whole board.

(19) That the wives and families of sailors be relieved by way of loan, or in the workhouse, except under special circumstances and by order of the whole board.

(20) That outdoor relief shall not be granted to any woman deserted by her husband, except under special circumstances and by order of the whole board.

(21) That when persons require assistance towards burying their relations the board will not con-

from week to week; the old and infirm for thirteen weeks. In Bristol a small proportion of relief is given in bread and coal is given in winter. In Barton Regis a small proportion in bread, and medical necessaries if ordered by the doctor; and "in a few cases of intemperance food is given and no money." In Bedminster two-thirds is given in money and one-third in kind, but amounts vary and are dependent on the circumstances of the case. Bread, groceries, and meat occasionally are given.

In Bristol there is no principle in dealing with deserted wives. "The guardians go on the rule of judging every case on its merits. This means according to the opinion of individual guardians, but, with many exceptions, the rule is not to give out-door relief." Women with illegitimate children are also, except in case of illness, refused. In Barton Regis these classes are dealt with under specific fixed rules.† In Bedminster both classes are refused out-door relief. In Bristol army and navy pensioners in the house are charged 6*d.* a day and are not relieved out of the house. As a rule, contributions are not obtained from benefit clubs. In Barton Regis the wish is to be as liberal as possible in such cases. In the house the cost of support is deducted and the balance placed at the pauper's disposal. Out of the house one-half of the pension or allowance is taken as the basis of relief. In Bedminster there is the same estimation. In Bristol relief is "often practically granted in aid of earnings, in the case of women earning 2*s.* 6*d.* or 3*s.* 6*d.* a week by cleaning or by some miserably low-paid work in a factory." "There is no rule, except it be for each guardian to do as he likes." The same effect is often seen in the case of the earnings of old people. In Barton Regis relief in aid of earnings is only granted to old people or the partially disabled and to widows. In Bedminster it is the same. In none of the three unions have the guardians or their officers, except in respect to deaf and dumb and blind asylums, any communication with the charities within their union. In the Bristol union one replier states, "We had some years ago."

In the Bristol union the scale of relief is: Old and infirm, 2*s.* and 1 loaf to 4*s.*; able-bodied sick, 2*s.* 6*d.*, 1 loaf, and 9*d.* a child, with medical necessaries; widows (sick), deserted wives, wives of soldiers and sailors, 2*s.* 6*d.* and 1 loaf and 9*d.* for each child. Able-bodied widows with children, 9*d.* and a loaf, and school fees for each child.

In the Barton Regis Union the scale of relief is fixed† upon somewhat the same basis. The able-bodied widow is expected to support herself and one child, and receives 1*s.* and a loaf for each of other children she may have unable to work. In the

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tribute to the expenses unless they have the entire management of the funeral. For a pauper funeral—a coffin, a shroud, and a pall, with men to carry the coffin, and legal fee only shall be provided.

(22) That all paupers within the limits of this union shall be relieved weekly.

(23) That when relief has been refused to any applicant by one relief committee it shall not be granted subsequently by another committee, but the case brought before the whole board.

(24) That no single able-bodied man be admitted to the workhouse by the relieving officer or master, except in case of sudden or urgent necessity (23, L. G. B. L., 1282).

(25) That, in all cases of relief "under special circumstances" where the consent of the whole board has once been given, such relief may be continued from time to time as may be necessary by any one of the relief committees, provided there is no material alteration in the circumstances.

(26) That in all cases "under special circumstances" which have been brought before the whole board, and the relief has been refused, such cases shall not be readjudicated upon for thirteen weeks after such decision, except there has been some alteration in the circumstances.

(27) That no person shall receive out-door relief who is responsible for the parish rates on any house, except under very special circumstances.

(28) That all persons admitted to the workhouse between the meetings of the board on the orders of the relieving officers be, if capable, brought before the guardians or a committee at the following meeting.

(29) That the relieving officers be required to give the master as early as possible on the morning of each board meeting a list of persons admitted by them during the week, and that such as are able be sent by the master to see the relief committees, and that those in the sick wards be sent down to the committees as soon as discharged therefrom.

† *Vide printed* rules already set forth in note.

Bedminster Union the not able-bodied receive from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* a week. The able-bodied with children 2*s.* to 3*s.* and 1*s.* and a loaf for each child. Widow with children 1*s.* and a loaf for each child. The numbers in the unions are as follows: In the Bristol Union the actual number of poor relieved, exclusive of vagrants, was, on January 1, 1884, indoor, 1,079; outdoor, 2,309; total, 3,388. In the Barton Regis Union, at the same date, indoor, 1,015; outdoor, 4,407; total, 5,422. In the Bedminster Union, for the previous half year, July, 1883, indoor, 362; outdoor, 3,019; total, 3,381. In the Bristol Union the amount of contributions from richer relatives toward the maintenance of indoor paupers was £1,458 9*s.* 6½*d.*; in the Barton Regis Union, £1,548 18*s.* 11*d.*; in the Bedminster Union, though no figures are given, the relatives are said to be "regularly looked up."*

Such is the summary of evidence, as regards the administration of the three unions.

The summary of the opinions of the repliers upon the points dealt with and some others is as follows:

First, it is said that it is most desirable that there should be more separation between the various inmates in the workhouse, permanent and occasional, more classification of them; and specially more separation between children and adult paupers, and between pure and honest women and the impure and dissolute. As regards children, schools for them, say many, should never be within the workhouse walls; they should be quite separated from workhouse scenes. As they are at present in all the three unions, it is often quite impossible for the children not to be frequently holding intercourse with adult paupers. This can never be with elevating effect; sometimes it is with directly evil results. And if the evil does not come to the children thus directly, a workhouse taint, growing with their youth, is upon them; the standard of pauper dependence and hopelessness too often becomes theirs; indirectly and insensibly pauper influences affect them; their characters become marked with a peculiar stamp of degradation.

As regards the compulsorily mixing of women good and bad together, the matter, it is urged, should not be left to be regulated by the discretion of the guardians or authority of the master. Rules should be laid down by the local government board insisting upon proper accommodation for their separation.

Almost all the repliers deem that the workhouse test in each union needs more enforcement. In Barton Regis the workhouse is thought not to be sufficient in accommodation for any strict application of the test. That the £ *s.* *d.* side of the matter is the real motive of refusing to press the test, many allege. The expense which, it is thought, would follow from doing so frightens guardians; and thus many applicants get outdoor relief who ought not to receive it. To give them it seems to the guardians cheapest. Of outdoor relief itself, and its effects, there are only two repliers who speak with favor. By all the others who touch on the subject it is condemned in more or less strong language. In a few exceptional cases of the aged or widows, or in the case of broken-down ratepayers, who may fittingly think it their due; in the case of mothers whose daughters can lodge and "do something" for them, but who can not afford out of their own scant earnings altogether to maintain them; in some such cases outdoor relief may be permissible, perhaps advantageous; but that it should be the rule and not the exception, this is almost unanimously denounced as a great cause of the present dependence of the poor, and

* It is worth notice that of late years both in the Bristol and Barton Regis Unions much more has been collected from relatives of paupers than in former years. The returns show that in 1870 in the Bristol Union only £850 2*s.* 8*d.* was collected; in the Barton Regis Union only £242 15*s.* The figures, moreover, in the text represent the cash actually received, but cases often occur where the relatives, on notice given them that proceedings are about to be commenced, maintain the pauper rather than submit to proceedings. The relief saved in such cases is very considerable. In the Barton Regis Union, where the collection is attended to entirely by the clerks and relieving officers, the extra amount collected in excess of 1870 more than pays the salaries of these officials—previously a heavy charge on the ratepayer.

a source of many evils. "It is too freely given." "It hinders thrift." "It paralyzes effort." "I should be glad, except in the case of the aged, to see it totally abolished." "Medical aid from the guardians is the first nail in the coffin of a man's self-respect, and outdoor relief screws it down." On the other hand, "men are really fallen low before they apply for it," says one, in half defense of it.

Amongst the neighbors of the recipients of outdoor relief much heartrendings and jealousies arise if they themselves have been applicants, and even the industrious and independent, when they see it granted to the idle and worthless, become chagrined and unhappy. On the children of paupers outdoor relief has generally, almost all the repliers say, the worst effect. Their piety becomes crippled by it, their sense of filial responsibility demoralized, their love for their parents devitalized.

REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE.

The subjects of almsgiving, endowed charities, and poor-law relief are not the least in importance in due "inquiry into the condition of the poor;" rather they are the subjects which need closest attention. They differ, indeed, from the other subjects of which this report has yet treated, and in a significant manner. Previous chapters of the report have dealt with points concerning which the rich and more responsible classes have somewhat neglected the wants of their poorer fellow-citizens. Provision of suitable dwellings for the poor; care for their "physical and moral welfare" in home life; the education of their children, now happily provided on a wide and effective system, but not long ago left to private enterprise and administration; regard for their recreation and pleasures as counter attractions to intemperate and immoral habits; these have all been subjects in which omissions of duty to the poor may, with some pertinence, be charged against the rich. But in respect of almsgiving, charities, and poor-law relief, the charge is quite otherwise. Of almsgiving, of charities, of poor-law relief there is in Bristol no lack. The faults of the rich to the poor as regards these are not those of omission but of commission. In many cases mischief is done through almsgiving lavished inconsiderately, charities bestowed unwisely, poor-law relief administered laxly.

Philanthropy in these days of complex human relations and crowded social life is a science, and the bestowal of money a chapter in the book of such science which needs most studious reading. Relief of the poor, whether by alms or charity doles, or poor-law relief, may not be treated as a mere matter of emotion. Philanthropy of such a kind is little more than an animal impulse. To help distress by a ready gift of money may only mark a selfish temperament which seeks to put out of sight and mind a disagreeable impression. Such philanthropy of the emotions (like all issue of the emotions) is worthless, unless disciplined and directed into wise action. The laws of philanthropic science must be studied, laws which need as much watchfulness to discover and as much careful heed to follow as do the laws of physical science, and the transgression of which entails almost as serious a consequence. Every shilling given to the poor does good or harm just as it is given on right or wrong principles, and to give without thoughtfulness and intelligent sympathy is often worse than not to give at all.

Some further remarks on the laws of philanthropic science and the true principles of relief will be given later in this chapter.

It may be well first to consider the three great divisions under which relief to the poor is given in Bristol, and to do so in some detail: Almsgiving, charities, and poor-law relief. And it will be found more convenient in such consideration to reverse the order of the three and to take the last—poor law relief—first.

The foundation of all relief in Bristol, as in all England, is the poor law relief. For good or evil the poor law has affected, too, the spirit of English character. It has had a determining effect on the energy and industry of the poor. The sense of responsibility of the rich has been unconsciously directed by it. It has shaped

benevolent efforts, and charity has even been obliged to reckon with it. It is the legal right of every Englishman, which he can claim of his fellow-citizens, that he shall not die of starvation. Where there are no charities, where there are no alms, he may knock at the workhouse door and say, "Give me bread."

This right is the basis of the poor-law system of England, which is only a machinery for assuring to every Englishman this right, with watchful and prudent regard to the interests of the rest of community and to justice.

In Bristol the poor-law system is administered by three bodies. The corporation of the poor, who are engaged in the relief of the poor of the ancient city; the Barton Regis board of guardians; and the Bedminster board of guardians, these two latter bodies relieving other than the poor of Bristol, and containing in their unions several agricultural parishes.

This treble administration of poor law relief, each body acting independently and disjunctively from the others, suggests the need of one most desirable change, viz, that there should be one union for the whole of Bristol, which should include all the inhabitants within the whole city area, and it is a grave question whether till concentration of administration of poor law relief takes place, such administration must not be always misshapen and faulty. It is possible that the new delineation of boundaries for the redistribution bill may point the way to improvement in this direction.

Under the present plan some of the evil effects are as follows: (1) It depends upon whether an applicant lives on this or that side of the street, whether he is in this or that union; and so whether he is relieved or not relieved, or relieved in this way or that way, for this length of time or that length of time.* (2) In cases of migration of the poor (very frequent in Bristol) from one quarter of the town to the other, continuous official knowledge of the poor and consistent treatment of them is impossible. (3) Administrative expenses are increased. (4) Statistics are complicated.

While this inherent defect of treble authority in the administration in Bristol of the poor-law system is to be greatly regretted, there is another fault apparent in the principles and the methods† by which relief is given. Let these statistics speak for themselves.

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* This unequal way of dealing with the poor breeds a feeling of injustice in them.

† Though some of the questions of the committee, as will be observed in the list already given, were directed to the methods of administration in as well as out of the workhouse, it is impossible to deal with the points referred to fully. Only this much would the committee say: That, in their opinion, it is of capital importance that steps should be at once taken to separate pure and impure women in workhouse intercourse; and, further, they would state their conviction that workhouse schools should be quite apart from the workhouse itself and its surroundings. Such separation is absolutely necessary to give the young a chance of escaping from the mean taint of pauperism which, with many, is often hereditary, and needs all the renovating help of purer and freer scenes and associations to wipe it away.

The whole population of Bristol in 1881 was 206,374. Those receiving relief within the city are: In-door, 2,086; out-door, 6,192; total, 8,278. So that about one in every 25 inhabitants is a pauper, and about 1 in 33 an out-door pauper. A comparison of the pauperism of Bristol with that of other large towns may be further instructive, and will be seen in the accompanying table.

[Extracted from a return of paupers (England), Parliamentary paper, June 16, 1884, arranged according to cost of relief per head of population.]

Unions.	Population (census 1881.)	Numbers of paupers relieved Jan. 1, 1883.			Ratio to population of—			Cost in year lady-day, 1883, of—			Ratio of cost of indoor and outdoor relief per head of population.
		In-door.	Out-doors.	Total.	In-door paupers.	Out-door paupers.	Total.	In maintenance.	Out-door relief.	Total.	
					P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	£	£	£	s. d.
Aston	209,837	832	2,044	2,876	0.4	1.0	1.4	6,527	3,960	10,487	1 0
Sunderland	139,288	601	1,635	2,236	0.4	1.2	1.6	4,834	5,004	9,838	1 4½
Bradford	183,032	630	3,062	3,692	0.3	1.7	2.0	6,329	10,465	16,794	1 10
Nottingham	159,263	769	2,257	3,026	0.5	1.4	1.9	7,102	8,245	15,347	1 11
Halifax	170,440	509	2,801	3,310	0.3	1.6	1.9	5,915	10,550	16,465	1 11½
Wigan	139,918	471	3,001	3,472	0.3	2.2	2.5	3,500	10,414	13,914	1 11½
South Shields	103,199	594	2,167	2,761	0.6	2.1	2.7	4,017	6,288	10,305	1 11½
Bolton	192,405	1,003	2,949	3,952	0.5	1.6	2.1	9,675	10,177	19,852	2 0½
Dewsbury	153,712	362	3,008	3,370	0.2	2.0	2.2	4,116	11,775	15,891	2 0½
Huddersfield	156,518	629	2,875	3,504	0.4	1.8	2.2	7,019	12,210	19,229	2 5½
Gateshead	105,410	486	2,389	2,875	0.4	2.3	2.7	4,518	9,611	14,129	2 8½
Leeds	190,847	1,124	3,948	5,072	0.6	2.1	2.7	9,419	17,413	26,832	2 9½
Salford	181,526	1,901	2,595	4,496	1.1	1.4	2.5	17,421	8,649	26,070	2 10½
Birkenhead	103,426	624	1,744	2,368	0.6	1.7	2.3	6,094	8,883	14,977	2 10½
Stoke-on-Trent	104,313	915	2,591	3,506	0.9	2.5	3.4	8,178	8,207	16,385	3 1½
Barton Regis	166,136	1,120	4,305	5,425	0.7	2.6	3.3	11,145	15,616	26,761	3 2½
Birmingham	246,353	2,550	5,584	8,134	1.0	2.3	3.3	25,055	16,176	41,231	3 4½
Sheffield	183,135	1,323	5,857	7,180	0.7	3.2	3.9	15,303	23,777	39,080	4 3½
Liverpool	210,164	3,857	3,712	7,569	1.8	1.8	3.6	34,655	11,197	45,852	4 4½
Manchester	148,794	3,584	1,261	4,845	2.4	0.9	3.3	29,898	3,706	33,604	4 6½
Whitechapel (St. George-in-the East, Stepney)	177,063	4,212	1,142	5,354	2.4	0.6	3.0	39,994	2,536	42,530	4 9½
Bedminster	67,405	429	2,991	3,420	0.6	4.5	5.1	3,877	15,566	19,443	5 9½
Bristol	57,479	1,195	2,354	3,549	2.1	4.1	6.2	10,577	11,125	21,702	7 4½
Bristol municipal borough	206,374	2,086	6,192	8,278	1.0	3.0	4.0	18,838	36,694	55,532	5 4½

NOTE.—The unions above given are not "selected," but are taken at random from the list. If all the urban unions had been given, Bristol would still be much in the same place, with the exception of some of the metropolitan unions, where the cost of maintenance is universally high. Altogether there are 630 unions in the return, and it was impossible to give them all. The figures for the Whitechapel, St. George's-in-the-East and Stepney, London, are given in separate figures in the return. The figures given for Bristol municipal borough are those supplied by local returns.

In none of the towns, proportionately to population, is there so great a total of poor law relief as in Bristol, and in none of them so great an amount of out-door relief.

It is difficult to believe that the circumstances of Bristol are so peculiar as to make these figures reasonable, and the committee respectfully call the attention of the guardians of the several unions and of their fellow-citizens generally to them.

And they would specially notice the excess in out-door relief, and on the subject of it they may be permitted to add a few words, as it is a question which greatly concerns the interests of the whole community, and the poor especially.

The guiding principle of the granting of relief, according to the poor law of England, is this: "That the condition of the pauper ought to be, on the whole less eligible than that of the independent laborer."* Unless this is so the strongest incentives to good conduct, steady industry, providence, and frugality amongst the wo-

* Vide report of commissioners, 1839.

ing classes become destroyed, and persons are induced by idleness or imposture to throw themselves on the poor rates. All distribution of relief in money or goods to be spent or consumed by the pauper at his own house is inconsistent with this principle, for such relief is in general more acceptable than an equal value earned as wages, inasmuch as it is unaccompanied by the "lawful" condition of labor. To carry this principle into effect the pauper must be relieved, not by giving him money or goods to be spent or consumed in his own house, but by receiving him into a public establishment—the workhouse. Relief in the workhouse is the determining principle laid down by the poor law for all ordinary relief, the only legal exceptions being cases of aged and infirm persons wholly unable to work, some sudden and urgent necessity, and the case of widows. That the great bulk of paupers should be relieved out of the house at their own homes was not the intention of the poor law at the time of its consolidation in 1839. Nor do any subsequent amendments since that date of its original enactment now permit it. To give out-door relief laxly, without giving due attention to this primary principle, relief in the house the rule, is, the committee are assured, a mistake of a most serious character. From the evidence given to the committee in the replies which have been summarized on previous pages, that the granting of out-door relief is granted on no principle by "no fixed rules," but "practically left to individual guardians, "modified by special circumstances," and that the workhouse test "lacks regularity," and "is not in favor;" the committee fear the application of this primary principle of poor-law relief is liable, in the practice of the guardians of this city, to dangerous mitigation;* and this fear is justified by the contrast in the figures which have been already given, and which show the comparative numbers of in-door and out-door paupers.

The committee are aware of the reasons often stated for a liberal granting of out-door relief, viz., that to try to force all applicants for relief into the workhouse would add to expense, and so increase the rates, and that in time of temporary slackness of work to get relief of some kind is a necessity for even industrious and honest workingmen, and that it is hard to compel them to break up their homes and come into the workhouse as a condition of receiving poor-law relief. As to the first of these reasons the committee would observe that it is evident from the replies, and, indeed, a well-known fact in poor-law administration experience that for one family who would "accept the house" there are a great many who would decline relief altogether, so that the expenditure for the entire maintenance of one family would amount only to a small part of the expenditure for the partial out-door relief to this greater number. In regard to the second reason, it is one which must enlist certainly the sympathy of all who know what terrible trials in time of depression of trade many honest and industrious men and their families have to bear, but the committee can not but believe that if some system of watchful and kindly charitable help (as will be set forth further on in this report) were established to meet these cases, greater advantage would accrue in every way. It must never be forgotten that any help from the poor law, on the ground of lack of work, especially on the ground of work intermittent in its opportunities, must in the long run inevitably depress the rate of wages,† and so the ultimate condition of the very classes which it temporarily professes to help. Poor-law relief, too, as all who are cognizant of its effects can testify, is ordinarily received by the pauper as his due without gratitude, saps his independence, and has a tendency to separate classes rather than bind them together,‡

* In some of the poor-law districts the inadequate number of relieving officers aggravates the evil of laxity in regard to out-door relief.

†Except when the demand for labor exceeds the supply, wages for unskilled labor have always a tendency to fall to the lowest sum which will support the laboring class. If that class gets support very freely from out-door relief it needs less support from wages, and so wages fall proportionately.

‡ The following remarks of Mr. Herbert Spencer are worth recording here: "There could hardly be found a more efficient device for estranging men from one another and decreasing their fellow-feeling

whilst charity (which the poor law never was intended to supersede), even when liberally distributed, is found not so significantly to interfere with the labor market, and may, by stepping in with unpatronizing sympathy and timely and frank aid, leave in the recipient kindly feelings, and link classes together in friendliness.*

The next great division under which relief is given to the poor in Bristol is by the administration of the endowed† charities. These amount to about £50,000 a year.‡ The accounts of these charities have been before the committee, and show that they are scrupulously and honorably administered. The expenses of their management are not specially excessive; nor do items appear, as may be frequently seen elsewhere in regard to other accounts of charities of this kind, for defrayment of "audit dinners" and the like.

Many of the objects to which the money of these charities is applied are excellent, and need but short comment.

"Education" (£20,000 a year),§ even in these days of imperial provision for it, in its elementary stages is still an object which, it appears to the committee, needs help. The prolonged and higher education of the more promising boys and girls of the laboring and artisan class, the provision of education for children of the lower middle class, even of the less wealthy of the class above them, are all matters which affect the community at large, and are daily increasing in the importance of their issues.

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than this system of State almsgiving. Being kind by proxy! Could anything be more blighting to the finer instincts? Here is an institution through which, for a few shillings periodically paid, the citizen may compound for all kindness owing from him to his poorer brothers. Is he troubled with twinges of conscience? Here is an anodyne for him, to be had by subscribing so much in the pound on his rental. Is he indifferent as to the welfare of others? Why, then, in return for punctual payments of rates he shall have absolution for hardness of heart. Look; here is the advertisement: 'Gentlemen's benevolence done for them in the most business like manner and on the lowest terms. Charity doled out by a patent apparatus, warranted to save all soiling of the fingers and offense to the nose. Good works undertaken by contract. Infallible remedies for self-reproach always on hand. Tender feelings kept easy at —— per annum.'"

*The fact of charity being ordinarily more private in its bestowal than poor law relief is an advantage. Its hope, too, is, or ought to be, to elevate the whole condition of the individual relieved. With this the poor law has nothing to do. Its duty is to keep its recipients alive, nothing more.

† Endowed charities have had an influence on pauperism only second to that of the poor rate. In an endowment, the dead and the living enter into a partnership of almsgiving. The dead man charges his estate with an alms, the living agency supplies (or ought to supply) what the dead can not, personal sympathy, investigation, discrimination, and the skill necessary to mete out the alms in adequate relief, and the power to make such changes in the form of the gift as the constant changes in men and things necessitates.

‡ Verbatim copy of the summary of the accounts of the endowed charities of Bristol (Parliamentary paper) published in 1873:

Education	£19,986 1[illegible]
Apprenticing and advancement	803 1[illegible]
Endowments of clergy, lectures, and for sermons	702 1[illegible]
Church purposes	4,727 1[illegible]
Maintenance of dissenting places of worship and their ministers	983 1[illegible]
Education of dissenters	808 [illegible]
Public uses	143 [illegible]
Support of almshouses and their inmates and pensioners	12,176 1[illegible]
Distribution of articles in kind	1,163 1[illegible]
Distribution of money	2,173 [illegible]
General uses of the poor	4,998 [illegible]
Balance, application not stated	188 11
Total gross income	48,356 11

The accounts of the charities made up to later dates do not very materially alter these figures either in their total sum or their expenditure.

§ In this total are included the endowments of the Bristol Grammar School, the Colston School, the City School, the Trade School, and others.

"Apprenticeship and advencement of children" (£800 a year), though the usefulness of the former seems more or less passing away, are also excellent objects of charities.*

To the various ecclesiastical uses to which some of the endowed charities are applied, as also to the money given to ministers of religion and for sermons, and to nonconformist objects, the committee need not refer. Such objects are beyond the scope of their inquiry, as also is the expenditure on public uses.

But on the other methods of application of the endowed charities some few remarks may be made, as they appear to the committee to be of more questionable usefulness. They are "almshouses and pensions" (these are not always for the poor only), "distribution of articles in kind," "distribution in money," "general uses of the poor," making a sum total of expenditure of £20,000.

It is impossible to consider this large amount without some serious misgivings that it might be spent to better advantage.

On "almshouses and pensions" £12,000 is spent, and the committee can not but think that too much liberality is shown in this direction. No doubt provision of the kind for the aged is always excellent in its motive and often beneficial in its effects, but it is not free from possible abuses. If too lavishly supplied the prospect of it may induce improvidence in early life and check the desire to assure the far more honorable provision for old age—that made by youthful thrift, industry, and self-exertion. It has a tendency, too, to weaken the sense of responsibility in children in regard to the support of their parents; and in the case of pensioners living in their children's homes, the pension is often considered a payment due for their maintenance. In the case of almshouses there are the objections: First, that they are expensive methods of provision for the aged; and, secondly, that the segregation of the old into such establishments to live alone by themselves is not happy; that they miss the opportunity of checkering the monotonous memories and increasing self-absorption of declining years by the brighter incidents and affections of home and family; and home and family, too, lack, by the withdrawal of parents worthy and honored from them, the benefits afforded by their example and counsel, by their restraining influence, and by the exercise of the reverent duties of piety called forth by their venerable presence.

In respect to "distribution of articles in kind" (£1,100 a year), the committee would venture to say that such distribution in any wholesale fashion is almost always inexpedient, though in individual cases it may be beneficial.

"Distribution of money" (£2,200 a year), which shows rather confidence in the recipients, the committee believe to be ordinarily the better method of helping the poor; but they regret to remark how much of the money distributed is given in small sums and on condition of religious connections or of residence in certain localities.

Distribution under the heading "general uses of the poor" (£5,000 a year), is very much reduced now in amount and does not exceed £300 a year, and it is not one which the committee are inclined to criticise, as the accounts show it includes many very suitable ways of spending money in behalf of the poor; rather, so far as it indicates some elasticity in objects of relief, they are of opinion that such expenditure is not without its advantage; indeed, that it may be considered the wiser, because the most wide heading under which to place the general distribution of charity to meet varying needs and circumstances.

To the endowed charities may be attached two other kinds of charities somewhat similar in character. First, there are the subscription charities for the benefit of the poor. A carefully compiled register of these will be found in the appendix, but in the present chapter it may be sufficient to state that they amount to £38,000 a year,

* Adult education, too, should be encouraged. In no class is adult education other than eleemosynary. The endowments of the universities provide for the richer adult. Why should not the poorer adult have like help, in a form suited to his needs?

and that they vary in their character and their usefulness, from institutions for the poor in sickness down to soup kitchens. And, secondly, there are the Colston charities of the Anchor, the Grateful, and the Dolphin societies. The amount collected annually by these societies amounts to about £3,000, about two-thirds of which is given in pensions and the remainder in assistance to mothers at the time of childbirth, in apprenticeship fees, and in money gifts. It can not be doubted that the rivalry of political spirit gives an impetus to subscriptions, accumulating to a total which might not otherwise be raised for the benefit of the poor; but it can be no less doubted that the same spirit may sometimes influence its distribution. The higher interests of charity will not be served, it appears to the committee, until (let the motives which raised it be what they may) the total sum collected by the three societies is distributed on some generel and well-conceived plan. The large amount subscribed would give singular opportunity for usefulness of a real and permanent character.

There is one last division in the bestowal of money to the poor which now remains to be noticed, viz, "Almsgiving." The amount of money distributed thus in Bristol is not recorded. Viewing the number of well-to-do persons resident in parts of Bristol itself, in Clifton, Redland, and Cotham, and in other suburbs, and taking into consideration the money given (no small amount) by the middle and artisan classes,* it is not too conjectural an estimate that the total sum can not be less than £50,000 a year. It is given at the house of the giver; it is given in the street; it is given at the home of the receiver; it is given in answer to begging letters sent direct to the giver or appearing in the newspapers; it is given in answer to Christmas appeals; it is given through ministers of religion, through Scripture readers, city missionaries, sisters of mercy, visiting ladies, mission women, and other agencies, too many to place on paper; it is given in as many ways, money, clothing, food, school-fees, in large sums to meet extraordinary wants, in small doles, in weekly allowances; and the distribution of it has, for good or evil, incalculable influences on the habits, hopes, and characters of many of the poor of the city.

These, then, are the sources by which the poor of Bristol are helped, as regards their bodily needs, by the bestowal of money, or what is procured by money; and the following is the total amount given:

The poor-law, in and out-door relief	£55,500
Endowed charities†	50,000
Subscription charities	38,000
Colston charities	3,000
Almsgiving charities	‡50,000
Total	196,500

Surely these figures can not be read without serious thought.

Almost £200,000 spent, not one shilling of which has not influenced man, wo[illegible] or child, morally, perhaps spiritually; has not made them either more hope[illegible] worthy, happy, grateful, industrious, independent, God-fearing, or more dis[illegible] tented, mean, thankless, idle, drunken, improvident, dependent, arrogant, Godl[illegible] Two hundred thousand pounds; a noble sum, if administered wisely, thoughtfu[illegible] with patience, after investigation of circumstances and character; without parti[illegible] ity and, if it may be, with the helpful touch of personal sympathy and respect; b[illegible] sum terrible in its magnitude if distributed otherwise; then only a deadly "occas[illegible]

* Anyone who will watch a beggar in his rounds through a comparatively poor district will see [illegible] donors than in a richer one.

† Several charities seem to have lapsed; their names appear in the charity commissioners' list, [illegible] that is all. Some are misapplied; one which has an income of £170 is stated only to be charged £27 a year, according to the will of the donor, and the balance of it to be spent otherwise.

‡ *This sum is of course conjectural, but it is not excessive.*

of falling" to many poor men and women, and "offense" in the path of honesty and labor; the ruin of industry and independence, the certain source of the evil conditions it assumes to remedy.

In the course of the foregoing observations the committee have incidentally remarked upon the matter which, in the administration of the poor-law in Bristol, needs amendment, viz, the excess of outdoor relief. They now wish to make some suggestions of a practical nature on this point, and then to offer some few observations upon one or two other details of the subject dealt with in this paper.

First, they would recommend that a serious and strenuous effort should be made to reduce outdoor relief in Bristol; but that such reduction should be gradual, and made in such a manner as to necessitate as little hardship to the poor as possible.* For the poor have been brought up in the expectancy of such outdoor relief, and taught by past poor-law administration in Bristol to rely on it; and any sudden and drastic change would be, in a sense, unjust to them; specially unjust to aged persons who shrink from the workhouse, and whom in many cases it would be cruelty to drive into it, and thus separate husband and wife or aged sisters.

And the reduction of outdoor relief, the committee believe, might be accomplished in this way. In the comparative figures and statistics on several points of the unions of certain populous districts in the table previously given, it will be noticed that the three unions of Whitechapel, Stepney, and St. George's-in-the-East, London, have a less number of outdoor paupers than any other; and this is more remarkable from the fact that these three unions comprise some of, perhaps, the most destitute parts of London, where hardly any other persons but the poor and working classes reside. The result has been arrived at in this way. In the year 1874 a voluntary committee, consisting of several guardians of the three unions, with other gentlemen interested in the condition of the poor, was formed, who undertook, on the guardians engaging to give outdoor relief only exceptionally and in special cases, to investigate all cases of persons refused by the guardians where there seemed any *prima facie* hardship, and to relieve them if they were found suitable. This system has worked admirably. Outdoor relief in the three unions has diminished from £4,928 in 1874 to £1,208 in 1883, and the total number of indoor and outdoor paupers from 6,998 in 1874, to 5,354 in 1883; whilst the deserving poor have not felt any hardship from the change.† Where their cases have been found suitable they have been relieved by the committee, and in such a way, moreover, that those benefited have not ordinarily felt themselves paupers; in many cases the relief having been gathered by the committee from relations, past employers, or friends of the recipients, and in others from kindly-disposed supporters of the committee in their experiment. The committee believe that such experiment might be usefully tried in Bristol.‡ The poor law, as they have stated, should not supersede charity, and here is a practical endeavor in which charity may well claim its rights. If some of the endowed charities were to be united in this method of charitable relief; still better, perhaps, if the Colston Commemoration Charities were to be so; if a board of gentlemen, some guardians of the poor, some representatives of the charities, some well-known citizens, were appointed to administer the funds; if charitable bodies generally and charitable persons would coöperate, the committee believe that reduction of outdoor relief in Bristol would be very feasible, and that

*Outdoor relief is gradually being reduced, as the returns of the corporation of the poor will show.

† The effect of outdoor relief on indoor relief and pauperism is very strikingly shown in a return drawn up by Mr. Wodehouse, Her Majesty's poor-law inspector for Sussex. In that county in 1873, out of a population of 429,910, 12,980 were outdoor, and 4,066 indoor paupers; in 1883, out of a population of 494,194, only 14,329 were outdoor paupers, and 4,347 indoor. The total pauper maintenance has decreased in the period per head of population from 6*s.* 4*d.* to 4*s.* 3*d.* The figures for all England and Wales are as follows: 1873, population 22,706,031; outdoor paupers, 736,446; indoor, 154,171. 1883, population, 25,972,119; outdoor paupers, 609,176; indoor, 194,672. Cost per head, 1873' 4*s.* 3*d.*; 1883, 3*s.*

‡An account of the rules under which this committee work will be found in the appendix.

there would result from it lessened poor rates, greater usefulness of charity, an increase in the independence and self-respect, and so of the happiness of the deserving poor; and, lastly, amongst the richer classes, a better instructed sympathy with, and a more scientific knowledge of the wisest ways of alleviating the distress and misery which is, alas! the lot of many in this city.

It has been thought right to deal with this subject of outdoor relief at some length, because it is outdoor relief which is a significant cause that there are so many applicants in Bristol for charities and for alms. Outdoor relief, it must be repeated and should be remembered, is never adequate, *i. e.*, it never provides for all the wants of the recipient. It is not legally its object to do so. It only aims at preventing destitution. Therefore, in Bristol, as in other towns where it largely prevails, outdoor relief only subsidizes a certain number of poor persons, keeping them from actual starvation; and they are left to obtain all beyond the bare necessities of life in some other way; and one way they do so is by application to richer persons for charitable aid. Wherever there is a lavish system of outdoor relief, it is found, as an invariable rule, that there is a plentiful crop of beggars. It can not be otherwise.

About the distribution, then, of the charities and alms to which such paupers and many others who are not paupers apply, one word or more may be added to what has been previously said, and some practical suggestions made. First, the charities are, as has been set forth, large; and it is remarkable that, as far as the evidence of the replies shows, the dispensers of them all seem not only to be in no communication with the guardians who dispense poor relief, but, further, to be in no communication with each other. This, the committee venture to think, is a most serious mistake. Imposition and overlapping of charities must take place through lack of it. Surely the committee would urge some coöperation, or, if not absolutely this, some interchange of information between the trustees of the various charities should take place. They can not think that some such plan is impossible, which, while leaving the several trustees independent, might yet insure greater usefulness for the gifts they dispense.

With regard to the distribution of endowed charities in small sums, 2*s.* 6*d.*, 5*s.*, 10*s.*, the committee believe that money given in this way is very liable to be wasted by the recipients (perhaps relieving temporary distress, but not permanently benefiting), and that, if the money dispensed on many applicants was more often reserved to be given in substantial sums to fewer, it would be likely to do much more real good.* It seems, moreover, to the committee to be a matter well worthy of consideration whether the system of money gifts to individuals might not, in the cases of many charities, be wisely abandoned, and instead some definite objects be supported for the amelioration of the condition of the poor generally, *e. g.*, agencies providing

*The following opinion of the charity commissioners on the subject of small doles may be usefully inserted:

"Doles produce ultimately more poverty and misery than they relieve. The true way of giving relief is by helping the poor to help themselves; by endeavoring to give them health and strength of body, intelligence, and cultivation of mind, and habits of thrift, foresight, and self-respect."—*Parl. Papers*, 1867-'68, xxi, 20.

It does not appear to be generally known how willing the charity commissioners are to grant new schemes for the better management of charities and how useful their advice is in regard to them.

The principal acts which give jurisdiction to the charity commissioners are 16 and 17 Vict., c. 137; 18 and 19 Vict., c. 124; 23 and 24 Vict., c. 136.

In the case of all charities where the income does not exceed £50, the commissioners may, on the application of any two inhabitants, remove trustees, appoint new ones, and make a new scheme for the disposal of the funds of the charity.

In charities of a larger amount, the application must come from the trustees.

32 and 33 Vict., c. 56, sec. 30, provides that, under certain circumstances, incomes wholly or partially under trusts applied in doles in money or kind may be made applicable for education.

loans,* encouraging thrift, facilitating emigration,† perhaps instituting benefit clubs. The unsoundness of benefit clubs has done more to make the working classes unthrifty than perhaps any other cause. And the committee would add one further note on the distribution of the endowed and other charities, viz, that in their opinion all gifts, eligibility to receive which depends on religious profession, should be abolished; they often induce hypocrisy and render suspect even genuine piety.

On the subject of almsgiving what can be said but the oft-repeated advice of all who have real acquaintance with the poor—

(1) "Never give to beggars without inquiry into the truth of their story." It is cruel selfishness to do so. Often the dole sends the drunkard to the public house, to which without the dole he would not have had means to go. It almost certainly encourages lies and deception.

(2) Give when you give in sums likely to be of permanent benefit to the recipient. Keep before your mind that to render benefit of a permanent kind is the aim of charity. Sixpences and shillings are almost worthless in effect, but instead of being lavished on many applicants might accumulate for the real benefit of one recipient.

(3) Give when you give personally, with intelligent knowledge of all the circumstances of the recipients, with kindly feelings and real sympathy for them, and in a spirit of trust and hopefulness. The poor are quick to detect suspicion; and the taint of it vitiates, in the mind both of giver and receiver, gifts even the most liberal and beneficent. If you distrust do not give at all; you have no right to give if you distrust.

(4) If you are unable from lack of time or from circumstances to put yourself in

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* Loans to the poor, though in bad repute, may, if carefully managed on business lines, be very helpful to them; and the repayments back of the debt by installments often give rise to thrifty habits. The pawnbroker is, in many instances, the only person who will lend to even the respectable poor, but the interest charged is high. A kind of benevolent pawnbroker's society, if well watched, might do real good. The ordinary loan societies, to which the poor have sometimes recourse, are, like the pawnbrokers', exorbitant in their charges.

† The question of emigration is one with which it is difficult to deal. It is not now in England generally as it was some years ago, when a vast number of agricultural laborers were competing against each other for work on land, which could not provide work for them. Now, with the emigration which has already taken place, and the influx of young men into large towns, to the population of which they give a renovating influence, work for country laborers is easy to get and under conditions which are sufficiently favorable for them to remain at home. But even if this was not so, in Bristol, as in other large towns, it is with a class of persons much less suitable for emigration than the dullest country laborer, who after all takes his country experience with him. we have to deal. The upper classes of the artisans may be left to take care of themselves, and if, of their own motion, they emigrate, well and good; so too with the adventurously minded unskilled town laborer. All that can be done for these is to put before them the true facts about the various countries in which it may be wise to seek a new home, or at most to lend them money to find their way there, but with the poor of large towns emigration as a remedy is more doubtful. They are often poor in every sense of the word, poor in individuality, poor in resources, the spark of vitalizing energy gone from them, and, except here and there in carefully selected cases, emigration would leave them in just as bad case, perhaps worse, than they were, the sea-crossing would not change their disposition, they would find themselves in a new world too active and busy to bear with their listless dependence, and, missing their poor law, missing their charities, missing their benevolent patrons, would either perish in the friendlessness of the distant land, or return back to renew the old life with more hopelessness than ever. But yet, though this is true, there have been many instances of young men who were living aimless and dependent lives in this country becoming energetic and self-reliant when removed from their life-long surroundings and transferred to new scenes and associations on the other side of the Atlantic. In the case of children who are in destitute circumstances or under the care of dissipated relatives, emigration affords the best means of rescuing them from want and peril. There are agencies in both Canada and the United States for receiving such children and placing them in thoroughly respectable homes, where they at once become members of the families and have all the advantages in education and training which are enjoyed by the children of the household. On the whole, there is wanted in Bristol a much greater support for the assisted-emigration movement. At present, except through the quasi-private exertions of benevolent ladies and gentlemen, hardly anything is done at all, and what is done is chiefly done amongst destitute children. Bristol, for its size and importance and its maritime associations with other countries, bringing daily the thought of voyage before the mind of

personal relation with the poor, do not give personally at all; send your money to those who are able to be so and beg them to distribute for you.

(5) Never give in response to begging letters. It is the most fraudulent form of beggary and the most ruinous on the character of the beggar.*

One word in conclusion. It was said in an earlier chapter of this report that "no remedy could be found for the immorality which exists in Bristol till there existed a higher tone of public opinion as regards the sin of fornication." The sentence might be paraphrased as regards charity. No remedy, the committee believe, can be found for the pauperism and mendicancy of Bristol till a higher tone exists as regards the sin of inconsiderate dispensation of relief to the poor, whether by poor-law relief, charities, or almsgiving; till the evils it effects on the poor are realized and till conscience directs the heart in benevolent efforts. Religion, *i. e.*, thoughtfulness, as in the sight of God for others, sense of resposibility as regards our gifts and their effects on others, painstaking efforts to seek wise methods of relief, care and watchfulness about the consequences of it, the self-sacrifice of restraining even what may seem ever generous emotions, these are not only the truest axioms of philanthropic science, but the necessary principles of all Christian charity.

CHARITY IN BRISTOL.

[A paper read by the Rev. Precentor Mann, of the Bristol Cathedral, at a meeting held in Bristol, on the 5th of April, 1892.—Inclosure 2 in Consul Lathrop's report.]

The best method of dealing with the poor is a subject at present very much before the public, not that the condition of the working class is worse than it has been—in some respects it has improved, the rate of wages and the standard of comfort among those in constant employment being certainly higher; but the national conscience sits less easily now than formerly under the knowledge that there is in our midst a large body of persons, called roughly by Gen. Booth "the submerged tenth," who live permanently on the verge of extreme poverty, dependent for subsistence in youth and health partly, in old age and sickness wholly, on the legal or voluntary bounty of others.

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the inhabitants, might seem to have special interest in emigration, and yet it has scarcely shown any. The following figures give example of this:

The numbers of persons emigrating to America in steamers sailing from Bristol port during the years of 1880, 1881, 1882, and 1883 were only 1,653, 1,654, 1,747, and 1,631, respectively.

Probably one-fourth were from Bristol itself and about two-thirds were males. About one-third under 12 years of age and about one-half of the passengers were in families. The majority were of the agricultural class, but those from Bristol were generally mechanics and laborers.

Doubtless many other persons from the neighborhood of Bristol have emigrated to the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand from other ports, but the committee have no means of ascertaining what the numbers have been. It seems to the committee that it is most desirable that a vigorous effort as regards emigration should be made in Bristol, and on the following lines:

(1) To put clear information on the advantages of emigration and the most suitable places to which to emigrate before the younger and more spirited men of the laboring classes, and to do so also as regards young women and young newly married couples.

(2) To raise money to provide outfits and journey expenses for poor emigrants, such money to be lent and to be repaid by the colonist by installments.

(3) To aid and supplement the excellent work that is being done in the way of emigration for destitute boys and girls.

That some of the money of the endowed charities would be usefully spent if applied to these purposes the committee feel assured.

*It should be known that the Charity Organization Society, 19 College Green, is ready to investigate the truth of the statements of all begging-letter recipients, and they would do well to apply to them. If a begging letter comes from one unknown or who has no claim on the recipient, the writer is almost certain to be an impostor. Many write, and in various styles, for others besides themselves. It is not a bad profession from a money point of view

"Petitions," to which persons are asked to subscribe their names, are almost as bad in their effect on character as begging letter-writing. "Recommendations" for charity gifts are less, though still degrading.

We need only allude to the annual returns of the local government board to realize the seriousness of the problem which confronts the philanthropist. On January 1, 1891 (the latest date for which statistics are accessible), we find the number of indoor paupers in England and Wales stated to be 198,044, while the outdoor paupers there were 582,239, giving the large total of 780,457 persons dependent at one time wholly or in part on the poor law. The total expenditure on the relief of the poor reached in the year ending Lady Day, 1890 (the latest date for which the statistics can be obtained), £8,434,345.

It is true that there has been a gradual decrease in the number of paupers during recent years, and this might be taken to show that the problem would in time solve itself, but this is not the opinion of those most competent to judge; and no doubt, because the decrease is not considered proportionate to the improved condition and the great total of 3,000,000 persons who, according to some able investigators, are from time to time to be remembered among the recipients of pauper relief, is a number out of all proportion to the population, so it behooves us all to see whether there is anything in our social or other arrangements which conduces to such a state of things.

Passing from general considerations to those affecting our own locality, we find ourselves face to face with the fact that we have in Bristol a specially high rate of pauperism as compared with other large towns, and side by side with this that an exceptional amount of charity is dispensed in our city, both through the ancient endowments and the action of more modern charitable agencies.

It would be beyond our province here to attempt to give the reason for this state of things. Probably it is the result of many causes. It is enough for the present purpose to point out that the large distribution of charitable and poor-law relief has not resulted in any permanent improvement in the condition of our poor; and, judging from the past, we can hardly hope that it will do so in the future. The whole subject has been most ably treated in the report of the committee on the Bristol poor, of December, 1884, an invaluable work, which is not nearly as well known as it deserves to be, containing, as it does, a large amount of information as to the conditions of life of the working classes of our city, as well as valuable articles on different branches of the subject. Chapter VIII, which treats of almsgiving, charities, and poor law, is full of wisest counsel to those who have at heart the best interests of the poor.

As our time will not allow of full quotation, the following brief but important passages have been selected from this chapter as indicating principles which are really the foundation of the present effort. After naming subjects in which omissions of duty to the poor may be charged against the rich, the committee proceeds:

"Of almsgiving, of charities, of poor law, there is in Bristol no lack. The faults of the rich to the poor as regards these are not those of omission but of commission. * * * Philanthropy in these days of complex human relations and crowded social life is a science, and the bestowal of money a chapter in the book of such science, which needs most studious reading. Relief of the poor, whether by alms or charity doles, or poor-law relief, may not be treated as a mere matter of emotion. * * * Such philanthropy of the emotions (like all issue of the emotions) is worthless unless disciplined and directed into wise action. The laws of philanthropic science must be studied—laws which need as much watchfulness to discover and as much careful heed to follow as do the laws of physical science, and the transgression of which entails almost as serious a consequence. Every shilling given to the poor does good or harm, just as it is given on right or wrong principles, and to give without thoughtfulness and intelligent sympathy is often worse than not to give at all." * * *

The point brought out in the above-mentioned work, to which we would call attention now, is that one great reason for the failure of our almsgiving and poor-law relief to do permanent good to those whom they are intended to benefit is to be

found in the absence of any coöperation between the dispensers of the different charities on the one hand and between charity and poor law on the other. The practical outcome of this inquiry found expression in a letter entitled "The Problem of the Poor," which was issued in 1885 in the hope of drawing together, for common action, the various agencies administering relief.

"An essential preliminary to any effective coöperation appears to us to be, that the respective provinces of the poor law and voluntary charity should be understood, defined and agreed upon. With a view to this, the following suggestions are submitted for your consideration:

"(1) Experience shows that very much of the worst distress amongst the poor might be avoided by the timely exercise of a reasonable amount of providence and self-control.

"(2) Those who are rendered destitute through improvidence would generally be referred to the poor-law authorities, unless charitable help can be given in such a way as to lead them to become self-supporting and thrifty.

"(3) All distress amongst provident deserving persons should be dealt with by voluntary charity, and not by the poor law.

"This indicates the best line of demarcation between the provinces of charity and the poor law."

One more paragraph from this letter must be given as comprehensively expressing in so few words the principles on which the proposed action is based:

"No merging of existing charitable funds is proposed, nor the substitution of a mechanical officialism for the graciousness of personal charity, but the provision of a means whereby individual effort might be strengthened, unconscious 'overlapping' prevented, and the poor more effectually helped."

The replies received were not sufficiently encouraging to induce a continuance of the effort at that time; but the lapse of years has brought confirmatory evidence of the soundness of the views there expressed.

The next step in the record of events is to be found in the issue of a pamphlet in which the Charity Organization Society availed itself of the opportunity afforded by an especially interesting annual meeting in 1889 to publish the substance of the speeches then delivered, and this pamphlet was widely circulated among poor-law guardians and dispensers of charity in the city. At that meeting Mr. Pearson said:

"That assuming coöperation, and that the guardians could feel sure that the cases were properly attended to, they could apply the poor-law tests with greater rigidness and greater success than is now possible. They would no longer be hampered by the doubt that, notwithstanding all their inquiries, they might be refusing relief to a deserving case, but would feel assured that they had only to deal with the undeserving poor."

The report of the speeches in this pamphlet was followed by an appeal to all the different bodies to coöperate and work out a system of relief which would give them unity of purpose and action. It pointed out the great wealth of Bristol as regards its sources of charitable relief, which amount in the aggregate to £141,000 per annum, and it continued:

"Having placed the facts and possibilities before their fellow-citizens, the society now appeals to the managers of these local charities and to the guardians of the poor to meet the committee, in order to adopt a plan for practical coöperation."

As a result of this appeal, the guardians of the Bristol Incorporation for the Relief of the Poor appointed a few of their number to meet the committee of the Charity Organization Society to consider the matter, and conferences have been held between the two subcommittees.

The present meeting has been called in order to place this subject before some of the leaders among those in Bristol who really care for the poor, and to consider, by

he aid of their experience, the desirability of bringing the poor law and charity ıto a relation mutually helpful.

The local government board has long recognized the importance of some coöperation etween the guardians and voluntary charity. As long ago as 1869, when Mr. Goschen ccupied the position of president of the poor-law board, he issued a minute calling ıe attention of the metropolitan boards to the need for such coöperation; pointing ut that the absence of settled agreement as to the respective provinces of each was n evil, and suggesting methods by which an understanding might be arrived at. In ıore than one of the East End unions action of this kind has since been successfully arried out. The experience of pioneers in this direction at Stephany, Whitechapel, nd St. George's, in the east, can not but prove most interesting reading to those who ave a population to deal with in many respects similar in its conditions and peculiar ifficulties to that of East London.

The coöperation of charitable agencies for this purpose is, however, at least as imortant as that of charity and the poor law. All experienced workers know but too 'ell that as matters stand at present the charitable aid which should be available) enable the industrious and deserving to tide over periods of misfortune and trial ı too often intercepted by those whose miserable condition is the result of their own areless and thriftless lives; and that in such cases the bestowal of alms utterly fails) produce any remedial effect. Persons of this class can only be effectually helped y methods of assistance which tend to bring about a radical change of character.

Some system of intercommunication, therefore, is sorely needed to enable the disensers of charity to distinguish such as these. If they could be left to the wholesome iscipline of the poor law, the problem of dealing effectually with the cases of deservıg persons, whom timely and adequate help would permanently benefit, would be ıuch less acute than it is. It is proposed now that a council or deliberative comıittee should be formed to consider the best method of bringing about this mucheeded coöperation, and, as suggestive to such a body, when formed, a line of action 'hich might prove successful, the committee of the charity organization society have rawn up a scheme, which is, shortly, as follows:

OUTLINE OF THE SCHEME.

Those to be helped by charity, rather than relieved by poor law, are persons of ood character in whose cases (1) there is evidence of thrift or providence in the ast; (2) there is hope of restoration to independence, though there has been no revious thrift or providence.

The first class includes such as the following:

Aged persons.—Cases of prolonged sickness in which club pay has run out.

Thrifty and energetic widows.—Persons more or less incapacitated by bodily infirmity.

The second class is a large one, and in dealing with it the assistance of wise local ıelpers would be all important, and in order to bring each individual case under the nfluence of a friend who would encourage and teach thrift, providence, and selfeliance in the future.

With regard to both these classes it should be borne in mind that the guardians can ıot legally give relief until applicants are destitute, and even then may not redeem ools, or assist in providing clothes, or take any of the needful steps for helping hem to regain a position of independence.

It is suggested that the voluntary committee to carry out this work should consist f representatives of all the relieving agencies in the district, as well as of any ther persons able and willing to give their assistance. Thus: (1) Managers of city and ıarochial charities; (2) some of the guardians; (3) the local clergy and ministers of eligion or their representatives; (4) some member of the charity organization ociety; (5) workers of all denominations in the district.

The committee should work in close communication with the guardians through their relieving officers, and with the clergy, city missionaries, district visitors, and others possessing knowledge of the locality, whose combined experience and information should make it possible to ascertain the facts as to the circumstances and history of applicants, and to deal with each case in a manner which would give hope of adequate treatment for permanent benefit.

HUDDERSFIELD.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT SMYTH.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) The designation "tramp" is applied in this district to bona fide workingmen going from one town to another seeking work (in contradistinction to the regular "vagrant" pauper), and the poor-law officers have a little discretionary power in dealing with them.

In some towns and cities, more especially in the south of England, the workingman before going on tramp obtains a form signed by a magistrate, and this insures him kind treatment in any of the vagrant wards, and he is not subjected to ignominious and degrading work in the labor yards, as some of the pauper vagrants are.

As a rule, in most towns there is a clubhouse (in large towns more than one) in connection with the trades union, generally a public house or tavern, where the tramp is permitted to put up and the expense is usually paid by the trades union, if they belong to one, and even if not they are generally kindly and hospitably treated.

To tramps belonging to trades unions and traveling in search of employment, the clubhouse is a most valuable institution. In it they can always be sure of a comfortable bed, of reliable official information as to the state of trade and prospects of obtaining employment, and of a kindly welcome and friendly service from their brother craftsmen who use the house.

In this city every tramp and vagrant who has no available means to pay for food and lodgings has to apply to the police station for an order for a night's accommodation and food (the chief constable is appointed a relieving officer for this special purpose, at a salary of £20 a year). If the applicant is found to be without means of payment and not known or "wanted," criminally, an order is given.

This order the tramp or vagrant (male or female) takes to the vagrant wards, set apart for this purpose at the workhouse. On admission the person is searched by an officer and is then cleansed in a bath (except that this is not enforced if there is reason to believe it would be injurious to health). Clothing is taken from them, and, if requisite, dried and disinfected during the night; night clothes being given to each individual, and their own clothes are returned to them in the morning. A

vagrant is not entitled to discharge himself before 9 o'clock on the morning of the second day after admission; but this rule is relaxed if necessity requires, but he is never discharged until he has finished the work prescribed for him.

The work prescribed, as regards males, who stay one night only, is the breaking of 3 cwt. of stone, or picking 1 pound of unbeaten oakum, or 2 pounds of beaten oakum, or three hours' work in digging or pumping, or cutting wood, or grinding 50 pounds of corn.

As regards females, the picking one-half pound of unbeaten or one pound of beaten oakum, or three hours' work in washing, scrubbing, or cleaning.

The officials have found that the rule compelling application to the police office has had a beneficial influence in deterring criminal and professional vagrancy.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) There are many societies and other public and private charities for the relief of the poor which distribute alms periodically, more especially in the winter time, when blankets, coals, and food are given away.

Associations are formed, and a number of tickets are given to the subscribers according to the amount of their subscription; these tickets are given by the subscribers to the deserving poor. These associations are generally in connection with a church or chapel or some other meeting place.

There is a society doing great and good work here, called the Charity Organization Society (similar societies are formed in almost all large towns and cities, and are in constant touch with one another, though all are separately and locally governed), by which 672 persons in this city were relieved in one year (1890–'91). A leaflet containing the objects and rules of the Huddersfield society is forwarded herewith.

There are also a large number of charitably disposed persons who give largely to the poor, particularly in necessitous times.

The Freemasons (who comprise a large body in this district) assist necessitous brethren.

Sick and trades societies are also numerous in this town and district.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) The police have orders to proceed against any persons found begging or soliciting alms in the streets or at houses, and the offender is taken before a magistrate and is liable, on the offense being proved, to fine or imprisonment. The police are very active against the offense of begging.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) Efforts to convert "beggars" and "tramps" to self-supporting members of society, etc. The charity organization society have a labor bureau in which can be enrolled persons who are out of work, and the

society does all in its power to get the individual employment. Out of 121 applications last year for work they were successful in fifty-nine cases. The labor bureau is looked upon as of great public utility, and has been most successful.

Addresses are given by some of the leading philanthropists of the town at the model lodging house (which is very much used by the better-class tramps) and efforts are made by them and the various societies they represent to induce the people by proffers of assistance to obtain work, and in many cases it has been found for them.

These efforts have been most successful; there are hardly any persons in this city suffering from abject poverty at this present time. Smiles, the author of "Lives of the Engineers," "Thrift," etc., writes in the latter work, that Huddersfield is the most prosperous town in England.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) The effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities are disastrous in the extreme. One of the head poor-law officials, who is a popular, active philanthropist, says he can not speak too strongly of the deplorable effects of indiscriminate charity, whether public or private. It makes good men bad ones and turns the industrious workman into an idle one.

People here are good natured and are easily imposed on; they can not resist a piteous appeal, and when the beggar finds how easy it is to impose upon their benevolence, they find it more profitable and easier to them than work and they in many cases drift into the professional beggar and vagrant.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(6) The best system of distribution of public and private charities, looking to the elevation of the recipients of such charities, to the condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence, and their ultimate rehabilitation as good members of society, is the system adopted by the charity organization societies, to which all societies for charities are and will eventually gravitate to.

The various charity organization societies, although administered and managed individually, are in constant communication with each other, the head society being in London. The London Secretary is C. S. Lock, esq., 15 Buckingham street, Adelphi, London W. C.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) No efforts have been made to prevent intermarriage of pau[illegible] or indigent people except those in the workhouse.

Outdoor paupers and poor persons are absolutely encouraged [illegible] marry by the authorities, particularly when of a marriageable age. [illegible] has been found that marriage improves a man or woman materia[illegible] *prevents* immorality and the birth of illegitimate children, and re[illegible]

rars have a hint from headquarters in London not to be too particular n their inquiries as to age, consent of parents, etc.

It is quite a rarity for a married man to apply for relief; nearly all nale applicants are either bachelors or widowers without children. No paupers in the workhouse are allowed to marry, or even cohabit if already married. This restriction is relaxed in the case of married paupers over 60 years of age, but it is of rare occurrence for them to desire to live together. I do not think there has been a single case in the workhouse here.

WILLIAM P. SMYTH,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Huddersfield, March, 1892.

HUDDERSFIELD'S CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

[Inclosure in Commercial Agent Smyth's report.]

The following are the objects and rules of the society:

1. To investigate all applications made to members of the society for assistance; o secure the necessary aid to those who deserve it; and generally to coördinate the fforts of private individuals and other societies for the most efficient help of the leserving poor.

2. The society shall consist of a president, two vice-presidents, one or more honrary secretaries, governors, members, and corporate members.

3. The president, vice-presidents, and honorary secretaries shall be elected at the nnual meeting of the members of the society.

4. The subscription of 2*s.* 6*d.* per annum or upwards shall constitute any person a nember.

5. Any society having for its object the assistance of the needy shall, on payment f 5 shillings a year, be enrolled as a corporate member of the society.

6. The governors shall be appointed as follows: One nominated by each corporate nember (*i. e.*, society); twelve elected by the general body of the members at their nnual meeting.

The following *ex officio*, viz: The mayor of Huddersfield, the vicar of Huddersfield, he clerk of the board of guardians, the medical officer of health, the clerk to the chool board.

7. The governors shall constitute the consultative committee of the society and neet not less frequently than every third month; five to form a quorum.

8. An executive committee shall be appointed for carrying on the work of the soiety, to be constituted as follows, three to form a quorum: The president, vicepresidents, and honorary secretaries; the *ex officio* governors; twelve members, of vhom no fewer than six shall be ladies, to be elected annually by the court of govrnors.

9. The minutes of the work of the executive committee shall be read at the meeting of governors next ensuing, and that the latter fill up all vacancies in the executive committee occurring between the annual meeting of members.

10. The following shall be the general instructions to the consultative and executive committees:

(1) To invite members to communicate freely all information in their possession bout deserving and undeserving applicants. Such information to be entered in bstract in the books of the society, but without the name of the member furnishng it.

(2) To record in one of the books of the society the names of persons applying to or recommended to members for relief, with the result of the inquiries instituted, and a statement of the measures taken for the relief of such as are deserving. Such books to be open to the inspection of members.

(3) That the names of those furnishing information and giving assistance to be kept in a separate book, accessible only to the president and secretaries, and that reference to this book be only by letter or number.

(4) To invite members to send signed forms for the infirmary and tickets for the invalid kitchen to the officers of the society.

(5) To invite members who are willing to render pecuniary assistance in special cases to give in their names to the officers of the society.

(6) To request members who can give food, clothing, or the recommendations referred to under IV, to send in their names, with a list of such things as they may be willing to supply.

(7) To request members so doing to refrain from disposing of the above, except in cases personally known to them, until they have received the society's statement of the result of the inquiries instituted.

(8) To inform members at once when they hear that persons relieved by them are not proper recipients of charity.

(9) That, as far as may be possible, the aim of the committee be to enable the recipients of charity to recover their independence, and that the greatest care be taken not to pauperize those whose welfare the society desires.

LEEDS.

REPORT BY CONSUL WIGFALL.

Pursuant to the terms of circular letter from the Department of State, dated February 10, 1892, the following memorandum gives replies received from the indicated sources, viz:

(1) The clerk of the Leeds Union, Poor-Law Offices, East Parade, Leeds.

(2) The chief constable of Leeds, Town Hall, Leeds.

To the first interrogatory Mr. John King, clerk to Leeds Union, makes reply as follows:

If not found begging or committing other illegal acts, this class is not subject to any state control. But if they resort to the tramp ward of a workhouse for food and lodging, they are put to work and under disciplinary rules prescribed by law and guardians' rules.

To the same interrogatory the chief constable gives no reply; as is also the case with the other interrogatories propounded, except the third, to which in due course his answer will be stated. To the second interrogatory Mr. King makes reply as follows:

There is no system adopted by the general public in distributing alms. Each donor gives what he pleases. There is no public-alms fund. Begging alms is not a necessity here.

To the third interrogatory Mr. King makes reply as follows:

If the police choose to interfere with a beggar he may be taken before a magistrate and sent to prison as an "idle and disorderly person" for a maximum term of one month with hard labor.

To the same interrogatory the chief constable makes reply as follows:

All persons found begging by the police are taken into custody and taken before he magistrates.

To the fourth interrogatory Mr. King makes reply as follows:

No national effort has been made in this direction. The means are at present rather unitive and repressive than remedial.

To the fifth interrogatory Mr. John King makes reply as follows:

No doubt pauperism and mendicancy are increased and encouraged by almsgiving. As to private charities they may be so administered as to be beneficial or the reverse.

To the sixth interrogatory Mr. King makes reply as follows:

I have not the necessary experience to offer a didactic opinion under this head, but that charity which is opportunely administered to suitable cases by any organization well experienced and handled is the best. Perhaps the nearest approach to such a medium is the London Charity Organization Society.

To the seventh interrogatory Mr. King makes reply as follows:

None whatever.

Mr. King adds a sentence to the effect that what he terms the above crude notes are made as replies to the queries; but, to supply full information upon this important matter would involve almost the writing of an essay.

F. H. WIGFALL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Leeds, July 29, 1892.

LIVERPOOL.

REPORT BY CONSUL SHERMAN.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) Vagrants, generally designated "tramps," are controlled or regulated as follows:

(*a*) The relief of "vagrants" or "tramps" is in this country regulated by the general law. Acts of Parliament have been passed with special reference thereto, and the local government board (a government department endowed with power to issue general orders having the force of law) have prescribed fixed regulations upon the subject. Liverpool comes simply under the general law; there is no special or peculiar mode of dealing with vagrancy in this district.

(*b*) The whole country is, for the purposes of the relief of the poor generally, divided into some six hundred and fifty districts, called poor-law unions. (The union is a combination of a number of smaller areas, the parishes). In each union there is a board of guardians, elected by the ratepayers of the district, to which are intrusted all matters connected with the relief and care of the destitute poor. Each union has

one or more workhouses, and under the conditions specified in the foregoing answer (*a*) the board is required to make special provision for the relief of vagrants, or, as they are called under the English poor law, casual paupers. In the workhouse of the union, wards are set apart for the accommodation of casual paupers, admission to which is obtained by orders given by the relieving officers of the union or by the authority of the master of the workhouse or the superintendent of the wards. As a rule, any person brought to the ward as destitute, by a constable, would be received as a matter of course. On admission a casual pauper is searched, bathed, dressed in clothing belonging to the workhouse, and given a meal of bread and gruel or bread and broth. (The quantities prescribed for men are 8 ounces of bread or 6 ounces of bread with a pint of gruel or broth. The women get 6 ounces bread, with a pint of gruel or broth.) Once admitted, the vagrant can not discharge himself from the wards before 9 o'clock in the morning of the second day after admission, nor before he has performed the work prescribed for him. Discretion is allowed to the authorities to permit the vagrant to leave earlier under special circumstances. The following day he gets breakfast, same as supper, and if he is kept through the day a similar allowance for dinner. The work given to him may consist of oakum-picking, corn-grinding, stone-breaking, digging, etc. If he is kept for one night only, he may be required to pick 1 pound of oakum or to break 2 hundredweight of stone. If he remains more than one night, he must for each entire day of detention break 7 hundredweight stone, pick 4 pounds of oakum, or work for nine hours at digging, etc. The tasks for women when oakum-picking are one-half those of men.

If a vagrant be admitted to the same ward on more than one occasion during one month, he is not entitled to discharge himself upon the second occasion before 9 o'clock in the morning of the fourth day after admission.

For disorderly or refractory conduct whilst in the wards the vagrant can be taken before a magistrate who has power to send him to jail.

Returns published by the local government board show that the number of vagrants relieved on the same day in all the workhouses of the country has ranged during the last thirty years from 1,900 to 7,700, the average number during the last few years being from 5,000 to 7,000. (These figures exclude women and children.)

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

If by "alms" are meant merely voluntary charitable gifts, the answer is that these are not under state regulation.

The Central Relief and Charity Organization Society is the only general voluntary relief society in the city. The last annual report of this society is inclosed herewith, and also a statement of the objects, operation, and ways and means of the various subordinate charitable *institutions* of this city, sixty-four in number.

The objects and methods of distribution of the Central Relief and Charity Organization Society are detailed in the annual report, especially the last page of the cover, viz:

CENTRAL RELIEF AND CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

[President, the mayor of Liverpool. Chairman of committee, and honorable secretary, Henry H. Hornby, esq. Honorable treasurer, E. E. Edwards, esq.]

The primary object of this society is the relief of deserving persons resident in Liverpool who are in temporary distress.

In a community like ours, where there is such a large laboring population, whose work is more or less irregular, there will always be a certain amount of unavoidable distress, even amongst the deserving and striving poor, and this it is the object of the society to relieve. Through the ministers of religion, missionaries, and others visiting amongst the poor, or on their own application, persons in distress come under the society's notice; a visitor is promptly sent to their residence; inquiries are made; and if the case is suitable, relief is afforded in such a form as appears most advisable.

The society's workshops provide temporary employment for men out of work, and at the same time afford a test by which to distinguish the idle and mendicant from those willing to help themselves. The benevolent may greatly assist the society by purchasing the firewood made.

Soup kitchens are opened when severe weather or other cause renders that form of relief necessary.

Work in the manufacturing districts is found for widows with families of suitable ages.

Bread and soup tickets, and also penny tickets of the British Workman Public House Company, are sold at the society's office, 5 Dale street, for distribution to the poor. These tickets afford a very safe means of giving assistance to the poor.

While thus helping the deserving, the society, by its careful investigations, secures the benevolent from imposition by the unworthy and the professional beggar, and assists in directing private charity into channels where good instead of evil is likely to result.

WILLIAM GRISEWOOD,
Secretary.

In addition to the official staff of visitors, they (the society) have, in five districts of the city, committees of voluntary visitors, who undertake to continue the visitation and oversight of their cases, and give relief on their account if needful. The following is a copy of the regulations for these district committees.

LIVERPOOL CENTRAL RELIEF AND CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

REGULATIONS FOR DISTRICT COMMITTEES.

1. General.

The committee of the Liverpool Central Relief and Charity Organization Society (hereinafter called the central committee) shall have full power of control of all branches of the work. By it the appointment of the district committees, and the regulations which govern their action, shall be made, and all finance and general business not appertaining to the district committees transacted.

The official agent (called the agent) shall be responsible to the central committee.

All regulations shall be interpreted in accordance with the general rules of the society.

2. Composition of district committees.

The district committees shall be composed of, (1) Chairman; (2) Visitors (not less than ten and not more than fifteen), one of whom shall be appointed vice-chairman, and one honorary secretary.

These will be appointed by the central committee, and after the first year on the recommendation of the district committees themselves.

One-third of the members will retire every year, but may be reëlected. The chairman shall hold office for three years, and after the first three years shall be chosen from the visitors, or on their recommendation.

The central committee shall consider all cases concerning the treatment of which there is a difference of opinion between a district committee and its chairman; also all relief cases involving an expenditure of more than £2, emigration cases, and the like. No expenditure, other than for relief, shall be incurred by a district committee without the sanction of the central committee.

The district chairmen may be present at the meetings of the central committee, but not vote as such.

3. The Ladies' Association.

Various branches of work among the poor, which can be better done by ladies than men, and more easily over a larger area at once than that covered by the separate district committees, shall be entrusted to a ladies' association.

4. Meetings and order of business.

(1) The regular meetings are to be held once a fortnight. Special meetings may be held for the consideration of special questions, if the chairman think fit.

(2) Eight members of committee shall form a quorum.

(3) In case of absence from duty, each visitor shall appoint a substitute, approved by the chairman.

(4) Visitors shall give the chairman notice in writing of any absence they can foresee, and shall write to explain any unforeseen absence. It will be the duty of the chairman to call attention to any infringement of this rule.

(5) The secretary shall take minutes of each meeting. These shall be signed by the chairman after being confirmed, at the conclusion of the meeting; they shall be delivered through the agent to the central office on the day after the meeting, such portion as shall be deemed material copied into the records kept at the central office, and the minute book returned to the district office within a week.

(6) The chairman shall have before him a book prepared by the agent, containing a list of cases, and particulars of any previous decision.

(7) Each visitor shall come provided with a report of each active case in his section, with all particulars and all answers from employers, or other references. In this shall be noted all changes in circumstances, as ascertained by the visitor, with amount of relief when given, and decisions come to by the committee. The chairman shall cause necessary portions to be entered in the minutes. When the case no longer needs attention, the report is to be handed to the agent of the district.

(8) The district is to be divided into sections, one of which shall be allotted to each visitor.

(9) Care is to be taken that no visitor has, as a rule, more than four active cases at a time in his charge. When more than that number occurs in his section, the chairman shall request the visitor of some less burdened section to undertake the others.

5. Treatment of cases.

(1) The visitors shall always bear in mind that their duty is not so much to relieve as to prevent the poor from needing relief, and when relief is given to let it be in *such a form* as may, if possible, help them into a position of self-support.

(2) It is understood that no visitor may give private alms to cases in hand, except with the concurrence of the committee.

(3) The committee is empowered to relieve any deserving person in temporary distress in accordance with the following rules.

(4) Application for relief is to be made either by recommendation note, personally, or by a friend, at the office of the district, at the hours appointed: or a written application may be sent. All applications are to be received and recorded by the agent, who will then visit the case and make due inquiry, and, if the need be urgent, give temporary relief. As soon as his inquiries are completed he will forward the report to the visitor of the section, who shall visit as early as possible, and report at the next committee meeting.

(5) If the need be still urgent, and the visitor be satisfied from inquiry on his visit that the case is a good one, he may further relieve, after consultation with the agent.

(6) In all cases the visitor shall report to the district committee, and the committee shall decide how each case is to be treated.

(7) After discussion, the committee shall allot each case to one of three classes, A, B, C. The A cases shall be those who bear a good character for sobriety, industry, and providence (and whose distress is of a temporary nature). The B cases shall be those the report of whom is not entirely satisfactory, though they have claims to consideration. The C cases shall be those whose character and habits make them unsuitable for charitable relief.

(8) The C cases shall not be relieved from the funds of the society, but if in need shall be advised to apply to the parish.

(9) The B cases shall only be relieved temporarily, and if they can show that they are likely soon to reach a position of self-support.

(10) The A cases may be relieved with greater freedom, and, if necessary, for a longer period.

(11) The points to be investigated are: (1) Present position; (2) antecedents and character; (3) cause and duration of distress; (4) income from all sources, including clubs, parish, and charities; (5) whether entitled by law to support from relatives. All these points to be reported on to the committee.

(12) Antecedents and character shall be carefully gone into by use of previous records of committee, references to employer or other respectable persons.

(13) If illness is the cause of application, some evidence of this shall be produced, and the nature and duration of illness and what doctor is attending shall be noted.

(14) If the applicant be out of work an order to the workshops may be given, the meaning of which shall be explained to him by the visitor.

(15) If the income be evidently too little to live upon, the applicant should give some reasonable explanation as to manner of living of late.

(16) In cases where there is a relation legally bound and able to provide, but unwilling to do so, it may be advisable to bring the case under the notice of the parish authorities.

(17) During the continuance of a case the visitor shall keep himself fully informed of the means and conduct of the family.

(18) No case shall be relieved for more than a week without a visit.

(19) Able-bodied men shall be relieved only for a certain length of time in one year, as may be determined by the committees.

(20) Relief may be given in money, work orders, food, fuel, clothing, tools, medical appliances, convalescent orders for sick persons, or in any way that shall be productive of permanent benefit.

(21) If in money, the visitors shall see to the wise spending of the grant.

(22) If in food or fuel, it is to be given in orders upon tradesmen appointed by the central committee.

(23) If in clothing, from central clothing stores, in connection with sewing rooms, or by orders on tradesmen, and the gift is to be carefully watched.

(24) Meat or medical or surgical appliances are to be supplied only on the certificate of the doctor attending.

(25) Parish relief shall not be supplemented unless the circumstances be extremely exceptional, and then only after communication with the parish authorities.

(26) It will be within the scope of the district committees to make efforts to obtain, from private individuals or other sources, such continuous relief as any A case in their district may require, and as may not be within the rules of the society to grant. Amounts received in this way to be reported weekly to the central committee.

The services of the Central Relief and Charity Organization Society are largely availed of by private persons and other societies to inquire into applications for their aid and to distribute the same when requisite.

If alms are meant to include relief given out of rates (taxes) to destitute poor, their distribution, so far as this is the case, is made under strict legal control. The laws for the relief of the poor—embodied in acts of Parliament extending to many volumes—are administered, under the general control of the local government board, by the boards of guardian, already referred to. They appoint the necessary officers, and the whole constitutes a very elaborate and complicated organization, having to deal with funds amounting, in the aggregate, to some seven or eight million sterling, or thirty-five to forty million dollars annually.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) Begging in the streets or any public place is by the law of England an act of vagrancy, for which the offender may be sent to jail. The society for the prevention of cruelty to children takes steps to prevent child begging.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) No organized efforts are being made here for the reclamation of tramps as such, in the way of providing them with work, which indeed many of them do not want. There are various religious agencies such as the Visitation of the Casual Wards, the Free Breakfast Mission, etc., which reach a number of them; and various reformatory and industrial schools, by fitting youths for taking their place as respectable working people, no doubt save many from becoming tramps.

The chaplain of Her Majesty's prison at Walton, Liverpool, says:

My decided opinion is that tramps belong to the incorrigible class of society and are irreclaimable by prison treatment. My long experience has led me to the conclusion that the rational way of dealing with "incorrigibles" is to detain them in "industrial homes" for a considerable length of time.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) Briefly, the effect of indiscriminate charity as experienced by the Central Relief and Charity Organization Society may be summarized as under:

(*a*) It destroys, or at least weakens, the spirit of self-dependence in *the recipient* and takes away the incentive to foresight and provision

for the future. Such almsgiving is frequently availed of by the most unworthy and designing, and apart from any need existing.

(*b*) It destroys or weakens on the part of relatives or friends of the poor the sense of natural obligation to assist those connected with them by natural or social ties who may be in distress.

(*c*) By interfering with the natural flow of labor to where it is required it depresses the condition of the working classes in a city like Liverpool.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(6) That system is the best which makes careful investigation into the character, antecedents, and present circumstances, and the causes of distress, and which adapts its aid to putting the recipient into a position to support himself by work, if possible. It is doubtful how far charity can itself provide such work with advantage, but setting the recipient himself to devise a practicable scheme, it can help him to carry it out when his own efforts are insufficient. The Central Relief and Charity Organization Society has been successful in transferring about 1,500 persons to the factory districts after arranging for their employment.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriages of paupers. There is in this country no such restraint upon marriage as is referred to in this question, but such marriages are exceedingly rare.

THOS. H. SHERMAN,
Consul.

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES,
Liverpool, May 13, 1892.

NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE.

REPORT BY CONSUL METCALF.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) To prevent disreputable persons, such as tramps and beggars, going about and carrying out illegal practices under the pretense that they are in due exercise of a legitimate business, the peddlers' act (34 and 35 Vict., 96) provides that any hawker, peddler, or other person, not being a commercial traveler or a bona-fide tradesman, who, without any horse or other beast, travels and trades on foot and goes from town to town or to other men's houses, exposing for sale any goods, etc., shall be liable for a first offense to a fine not exceeding 10 shillings, but it is competent for such persons to procure a peddler's certificate from the chief officer of the police of district in which applicant has resided for a month previous to application, which will exempt him from the provisions of the act.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) The principal method for the distribution of alms, and which is also the public one, is that carried out under the superintendence of boards of guardians for the relief of the poor by their relieving officers, who in fit cases and after proper inquiries, allow such sum to the applicant for relief as the circumstances of each particular case seem to require. Another method is that conducted by private societies, as the charity organization society, and many others of a like nature.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANTS.

(3) Under sec. 3 of 5 Geo. 4, c. 83, every person wandering abroad or placing himself or herself in a public place, highway, court, or passage to beg or gather alms, or causing or procuring any child or children to do so, is liable to a fine not exceeding £5, or to be committed to prison for any period not exceeding one calendar month; but it has been held that persons seeking assistance under exceptional circumstances, provided it is not their habit of life, as in case of workmen during a strike, are not vagrants within this section.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) As to efforts to convert "beggars" and "tramps" to self-supporting members of society, it may be said that such persons, when able to maintain themselves and families by work, refusing or neglecting to do so, are liable to be fined or imprisoned for a period not exceeding two calendar months, and this would appear to be the usual manner of endeavoring to convert such persons to self-supporting members of society, if imprisonment has such an effect—the success of which is a matter of opinion.

INDISCRIMINATE AND BEST CHARITY.

(5) The effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities is the pauperization of the recipients.

(6) The method carried out by the boards of guardians (public) and by the charity organization society (private) are usually considered to be the best, looking to the elevation of the recipients of such charities to the condition of self support, self-respect, and self-confidence, and their ultimate rehabilitation as good members of society.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) There does not appear to be any enactment against such marriages, although, as an indication of the feeling against such ceremonies, a husband and wife, when admitted to a workhouse, are separated from each other.

HORACE W. METCALF,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Newcastle-on-Tyne, March 22, 1892.

TUNSTALL.

REPORT BY CONSUL BURGESS.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) All vagrancy and begging being unlawful, the offender is subject to arrest. Any person, however, without home or money, applying to the local police, can procure a ticket, which entitles him to a night's lodging, supper, and breakfast at the local workhouse, a "tramps' ward" being provided for that purpose capable of accommodating 20 males and 6 females. The average weekly number of tramps occupying this ward is 58. In return for said accommodation and food, the recipient is obliged to break 4 hundredweight of stones for road-making purposes. If he refuses to do his task, he is at once brought before the magistrate and generally put in jail for from seven days to one calendar month. In the case of those who, through sickness or other adverse circumstances are absolutely unable to pay their way, application is made to the parish officer.' His duties, I presume, will be given under the general report of the consul-general along with the duties of the board of guardians, etc.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) Distribution of alms. An ably managed, well-organized charity organization society exists in this place. Being, of course, a purely voluntary society, composed of the best people of the place, having among its members all the ministers in the town, several of the police officers, the parish officer above mentioned, and the school board attendance officer, who by his official position, perhaps, best knows the real condition of every householder, and whose duty it is to visit every house in the district to inquire as to the attendance of the children at the board schools, thus coming into direct contact with the parents of children and becoming cognizant of the actual want which is so often the cause of the nonattendance of the children. Of course all of these officials act in a purely personal capacity, so far as the society is concerned, but, by their official knowledge, are of wonderful service to the organization and make its work much more efficient. The society is sustained entirely by voluntary contributions.

Help is rendered either by personal distribution or by means of orders; never by the giving of money.

No indiscriminate distribution is indulged in. Every case is thoroughly investigated, either by the officers of the society or a member of a committee appointed specially for that purpose. The case is thoroughly looked into and a complete record kept as to their present means of support, past history, and habits, their present condition, whether brought about by sickness, want of employment, indolent or

immoral habits, or general shiftlessness and improvidence. A study is made of each case, and a conclusion arrived at as to the best means of helping the individual case, the mere matter of gratuity often being found the worst means of assistance, more of a curse than a blessing.

The society's activity is the secret of its success. Weekly meetings, and in times of particular need, as in a long continuance of cold weather, semiweekly and often daily meetings are held. Thus the condition of each district is reported weekly, and it is seldom that a case reported at a meeting is not already well known as to whether it is one of real need or of imposition.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) The foregoing society often report to the police cases of begging, and act as prosecutors where there are no other means of stopping the nuisance. In cases where parents send out children for such purpose, the society have the parents arrested and prosecuted.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) Nothing is done, so far as I can learn, by the Government toward converting beggars and tramps into self-supporting members of society. If poor and absolutely penniless, the parish officer has the power to send such to the workhouse, which has but the effect of plunging them deeper in self-disrespect. The "charity organization," however, does what it can. For men or women who will and can work, it endeavors to get them into some employment, in some rare cases furnishing small amounts of capital as a loan; if in need of tools, furnishes them, it being understood that he or she will pay for them when they become able so to do. By sympathetic and kindly interest, with word and look, the society try to encourage them to a higher mode of life. This society, like all others of like kind, meets with many disappointments, but are greatly encouraged by many successful restorations from beggary to self-supporting independence.

Previous to the starting of this charity organization society there were many disreputable lodging-houses in the town, in which were congregated nightly hordes of the worst vagrant element, who daily swarmed the town as beggars, peddlers, organ-grinders, etc. Through the instrumentality of said society two-thirds of these have been closed, and the balance are of the poor but respectable class, and yet necessary lodging-house type.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) This society reports almost invariable disaster in cases of indiscriminate dispensation of either public or private charity, and appeals loudly to the public not to give any alms, but rather to take particulars of the case and report same to the organization. For this purpose

tickets are placed in the hands of many of the best householders, and in place of giving any money or food one of these tickets, with name and address filled out, is given, which acts as an introduction to the society. These tickets do not entitle the holder to anything but to an introduction to the society, who at once start an investigation of the case.

WM. BURGESS,
Consul.

U. S. CONSULATE,
Tunstall, March 12, 1892.

IRELAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL REID, OF DUBLIN.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

The Imperial Government has on the statute book legislation under which beggars can be dealt with, and persons committing certain offenses may be deemed rogues and vagabonds and become liable to be committed to gaol for any time not exceeding three months.

The 10 and 11 Victoria C. 48, s. 3., enacts:

> Every person wandering abroad and begging or placing himself in a public place, street, highway, court or passage to beg or gather alms, or causing or procuring or encouraging any child or children so to do, and every person who, having been resident in any union in Ireland, shall go from such union to some other union or from one electoral or relief district to another electoral or relief district in Ireland for the purpose of obtaining relief in such last-mentioned union or district shall, on conviction thereof before any justice, if such justice think fit, be committed to the common gaol or house of correction, there to be kept to hard labor for any time not exceeding one calendar month.

Under 5 George 4, C. 83, it is enacted that every suspected person or reputed thief frequenting any river, canal, or navigable stream, etc., or any street, highway, or avenue leading thereto, with intent to commit felony, shall be deemed a rogue and vagabond, and may be apprehended and committed to prison with hard labor for any period not exceeding three calendar months. By an act of 1871, in proving the intent to commit a felony, it is not necessary to show that the person suspected was guilty of any particular act or acts tending to show his purpose or intent, and he may be convicted if, from the circumstances of the case, and from his known character as proved to the court before whom he shall be brought, it appears to the court that his intent was to commit a felony.

The statutes are general to Ireland and are not limited to any particular city or town, but apply to the whole country.

Previous to 1838 the widespread destitution in Ireland, and the absence of any effective organization on a large scale for the purpose of dispensing relief to indigent persons, necessitated the legislature dealing with the subject, and, accordingly, in 1838 an act of Parliament was

passed applicable to the entire of Ireland which established certain districts or unions, in each of which a workhouse was constructed, and for its government and for the performance of the duty a number of persons called "guardians of the poor" were constituted a board. A moiety of these guardians are nominated by and from the local justices of the peace, and the other moiety are elected by the ratepayers, annually, in each division of every union.

The guardians are not paid for their services, and they administer relief in two modes: (1) Inside the workhouse, and (2) at the residence of the pauper (called outdoor relief). The former mode necessitates the pauper residing within the curtilage of the workhouse during the term he is receiving relief, whilst the other mode permits the indigent person to reside at his own residence and endeavor to obtain some means of livelihood and not to remain a burden on the community.

The first is the method practically of giving relief to paupers, and the second to those whom poverty has compelled to seek relief, but who are not necessarily paupers. The intention is by supplying poverty with assistance is to banish it. It strives to cure itself and does so when stimulated to exertion. Pauperism is more confirmed and often lends to contaminate others.

The repugnance of the Irish poor to enter a workhouse is very great. Too often even, as we learn from official reports, they prefer to die in utter destitution in their wretched cabins, rather than to let themselves be shut up for the rest of their lives in a workhouse with the certainty of seeing all domestic bonds severed (*vide* blue book 1848, p. 17; *ibid.* 1859, p. 34).

The method of giving indoor relief has the triple disadvantage of (1) being proportionately dearer, (2) relieving less poor and (3) subjecting the poor to very bad conditions.

As regards the latter, the fundamental principle of the administration is that life in a workhouse should be made to border as closely as possible on destitution. By this means it is proposed to banish from them those of the poor who would come thither only to live in idleness at the expense of the ratepayers. To exclude idlers and pretended paupers is undoubtedly the part of good administration.

The system of indoor relief is more general in Ireland than in England and Scotland and, consequently, the expense per head of the poor relieved is greater, principally on account of the large administrative expenses which it entails.

POOR LAW.

The poor law came into operation in 1838, but none of the workhouses were opened for the admission of paupers till 1840. The following table gives the numbers of paupers relieved *in* the workhouses and *out* of the workhouses from 1872 to 1889, together with the *total expenditure* for relief of the poor in the same period:

Years ended Sept. 29.	No. of unions.	Aggregate number relieved, continuously or successively, during the year.*			Increase or decrease on previous year.	Annual expenditure.				Increase or decrease on previous year.
		In-door.	Out-door	Total.*		In maintenance and clothing.	Out-relief.	Salaries and all other expenses	Total poor relief expenditure.	
						£	£	£	£	£
872.....	163	232,824	63,432	296,256	+ 13,764	410,183	80,477	238,671	729,331	+43,663
873.....	163	249,735	69,507	319,242	+ 22,986	454,670	91,154	244,736	790,560	+61,229
874.....	163	253,828	66,332	320,160	+ 918	466,345	93,586	257,350	817,281	+12,614
875.....	163	214,642	66,714	281,356	− 38,804	424,562	94,775	252,216	771,553	—45,728
876.....	163	183,979	66,116	250,095	− 31,261	407,937	97,403	257,815	763,155	− 8,398
877.....	163	199,794	67,237	267,031	+ 16,936	415,790	102,227	262,309	780,326	+17,171
878.....	163	248,810	75,290	324,100	+ 57,069	459,693	110,415	275,500	845,608	+65,282
879.....	163	304,826	86,426	391,252	+ 67,206	443,936	117,275	286,744	847,955	+ 2,347
880.....	163	368,096	181,778	549,874	+158,622	481,710	153,586	294,671	929,967	+82,012
881.....	163	363,844	226,005	589,849	+ 39,975	465,498	182,049	317,581	965,128	+35,161
882.....	163	333,813	131,036	464,849	−125,000	466,216	180,575	320,692	967,483	+ 2,355
883.....	163	305,339	132,856	438,195	− 26,654	470,922	186,064	365,859	1,042,845	+75,362
884.....	163	299,963	116,223	416,186	− 22,009	443,761	181,210	320,959	945,930	—96,915
885.....	163	320,550	120,939	441,489	+ 25,303	406,888	183,298	297,720	887,906	—58,024
886.....	162	360,972	271,214	632,186	+190,697	381,194	235,500	287,324	904,018	+16,112
887.....	161	387,075	134,757	521,832	—110,354	368,246	207,425	282,149	857,820	—46,198
888.....	161	396,697	129,150	525,847*	+ 4,015	369,197	201,152	279,903	850,252	− 7,568
889.....	161	369,570	120,655	490,225*	− 35,622	369,345	196,070	288,497	853,912	+ 3,660

*Exclusive of persons in blind and deaf and dumb asylums. In 1888 they numbered 888 and in 889 877.

Average daily number in receipt of relief during the year, average number of deaths per week, and rate of mortality for each of the 10 years ending September 29, 1889.

Year ended Sept. 29.	Estimated population.	Able-bodied.			Healthy children under 15.	Sick in workhouse hospitals.			All other classes.			Total number in workhouses.	Deaths in week.		Per-cent of in-door paupers on estimated population.
		Males.	Females.	Total.		Fever.	Other cases.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.		Average number during week.	Average weekly rate of mortality per 1,000 inmates.	
1880	5,327,100	2,815	5,165	7,980	12,230	1,007	18,936	19,943	6,843	7,250	14,093	54,246	259	4.8	1.02
1881	5,129,950	2,795	4,973	7,768	11,618	822	18,957	19,779	6,485	7,139	13,624	52,789	228	4.3	1.03
1882	5,090,009	2,803	4,737	7,540	10,665	859	18,392	19,251	6,179	6,928	13,107	50,563	204	4.0	0.99
1883	5,015,328	2,609	4,720	7,329	10,366	783	18,226	19,009	6,459	7,152	13,611	50,315	252	5.0	1.00
1884	4,962,570	2,323	4,423	6,746	9,299	671	17,409	18,080	6,360	7,140	13,500	47,625	210	4.4	0.96
1885	4,924,342	2,346	4,309	6,635	8,835	501	17,257	17,758	6,328	6,911	13,239	46,468	219	4.7	0.94
1886	4,889,430	2,477	4,254	6,731	8,709	489	16,755	17,244	6,407	7,013	13,420	46,104	204	4.4	0.94
1887	4,837,352	2,471	4,167	6,638	8,339	470	16,729	17,199	6,345	6,967	13,312	45,488	194	4.3	0.94
1888	4,777,545	2,637	4,101	6,738	8,092	564	16,836	17,400	6,308	6,770	13,078	45,218	196	4.3	0.94
1889	4,730,532	2,507	3,878	6,385	7,562	388	16,669	17,057	6,220	6,614	12,834	43,838	187	4.3	0.93

Summary of expenditure out of the poor rates in 1889 compared with 1888.

Year ended 29th September, 1889.	Leinster.	Munster.	Ulster.	Connaught.	Total Ireland.		Rate per cent.	
					1889.	1888.	1889.	1888.
	£	£	£	£	£	£		
In-maintenance and clothing	137,638	130,336	65,151	36,220	369,345	369,197	26.0	25.3
Blind and deaf and dumb	4,065	5,694	2,524	1,298	13,581	13,269	1.0	0.9
Out-relief	70,703	83,802	23,453	18,112	196,070	201,152	13.8	13.8
Salaries and rations of officers	43,092	45,152	30,786	17,747	136,777	136,587	9.6	9.4
All other poor relief expenses	48,265	44,769	28,141	16,996	138,139	130,047	9.7	9.0
Total for poor relief	303,763	309,750	150,026	90,373	853,912	850,252	.....	.....
Medical charities and vaccination	46,722	46,107	42,766	22,360	157,955	158,996	11.1	10.9
Expenses under sanitary acts	14,772	15,048	18,285	6,412	54,517	54,467	3.8	3.7
Expenses under burial-ground acts	2,954	1,774	995	1,238	6,961	6,006	0.5	0.4
Expenses under superannuation acts	5,044	5,326	2,274	1,781	14,425	14,115	1.0	1.0
Expenses under cattle-disease acts	11,966	6,071	5,914	2,615	26,566	28,399	1.9	1.9
National school teachers' act	5,513	8,897	12,660	21	27,091	17,822	1.9	1.2
Expenditure not included under other headings	101,365	143,020	22,083	12,971	279,439*	328,326*	19.7	22.5
Total expenditure	492,099	535,993	255,003	137,771	1,420,866	1,458,383	100	100
Valuation on 29th Sept., 1889	4,763,449	3,444,485	4,392,455	1,365,846	13,966,235	13,942,712	.....	.....
Poundage on the valuation:								
On poor relief	0 1 3¼	0 1 9¼	0 0 8¼	0 1 3¾	0 1 2¼	0 1 2¾	.....	.....
On total expenditure	0 1 8¾	0 2 5¾	0 1 1¼	0 1 11¼	0 1 9	0 1 8¾	.....	.....

*Including expenses under the laborers' acts, viz, in 1888, £246,373, and in 1889, £186,990.

Amount of the parliamentary grant for medical and educational purposes under the poor laws, also for salaries under public health act, year ended 31st of March, 1889. Medical purposes, £71,807 8*s.* 8*d.*; educational purposes, £9,634 16*s.* 2*d.*; total, £81,442 4*s.* 10*d.* For salaries under public-health act, £14,458 18*s.* 1*d.*

The sources whence the several unions derive their revenue are (1) by levying a rate upon all rateable hereditaments, *i.e.* real property; (2) by loans; (3) by grant from imperial exchequer; (4) produce of labor of inmates, etc.

The poor rate is not uniform throughout Ireland. The expenses of a workhouse are provided for by each union and the expenses of keeping the poor are levied upon each electoral division which is a subdivision of a union, in proportion to the number of poor relieved.

Those who maintain this compulsory provision of the poor laws maintain it as a permanent principle, to be kept in operation under all circumstances, because they say all property in civilized countries being appropriated they who are born into the world and have not the means of providing for themselves, who are incapable of labor, whether from infancy or age or from inability, physical or mental, have a right to a maintenance from the property of others.

It is lamentable, but true, that, to the improvident population of large towns and to the pauperized laborers of most of the agricultural districts, any facilities for maintaining themselves beyond drudging for the bare necessaries of life only tend to make them work the less and multiply the faster.

Fortunately, however, in the cities and towns, of the able-bodied paupers, it is only the most degraded who make application to the poor-

law unions for assistance. For relieving the deserving poor, who may be on the verge of necessity, the charitable public have formed organizations, which are supported by the voluntary contributions and bequests of the public generally.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

In Dublin the principal of these institutions is called the Society for the Relief of Sick and Indigent Room-Keepers of All Religious Persuasions. This society since its commencement has relieved the immense number of over 2,500,000 sick and distressed room-keepers, of whom 38,476 individuals received aid during the twelve months ending December 31, 1890. The resources of the society are derived from voluntary donations, subscriptions, and bequests. The mode in which applicants come before the society is by petition signed by a subscriber of at least 8 shillings per annum. Clergymen of all persuasions and medical gentlemen have likewise the privilege of recommending objects without subscribing.

The next largest organization is the charitable Society of St. Vincent de Paul, which was established in 1845 for the relief of the poor, without religious distinction, and who are visited at their homes by the members of the society. The organization is maintained by voluntary contributions and the administration is voluntary also. Branches numbering over one hundred and forty exist in various cities and towns in Ireland.

There are also a large number of other establishments, founded by humanitarians for specific charitable purposes or for specific objects of charity, such as the Dublin Typographical Benevolent Fund, Protestant Shoemakers' Charitable Society, Medical Benevolent Fund Society of Ireland, Apothecaries' Benevolent Society, Dublin Midnight Mission and Female Refuge, where, upon personal applications, an immediate refuge is afforded for outcast females; the Catholic Boys' Home, where a night's lodging and food are afforded outcast boys, and many other similar institutions.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

Efforts are being made to convert "beggars" and "tramps" to self-supporting members of society by the hard and rigid discipline of both workhouse and goal, and also by inculcating in them whilst resident in either institution feelings of self-respect, of religion, and a desire to avail of the opportunities offered them by fighting their own battle. Although there appear no statistics on the subject, it has been found that a very small proportion of professional beggars and tramps are apprehended the second time for the offense of begging.

In the case of youthful criminal offenders, reformatory schools have been established in various parts of the country, where, from the varieties of vicious characters confined in them, a penal treatment may

be necessary. The construction of the building and the rigor of the discipline are of a nature to assist this object.

The inmates are all instructed in some trade or craft where constant employment will inculcate those habits of industry which will materially aid the cause of reformation.

These institutions are maintained by (1) a capitation grant from the imperial exchequer, (2) by contributions from the local municipal authorities out of the local rates, (3) by a capitation grant enforced from the parents of the youthful offender if they are liable to pay it, (4) by voluntary contributions, and (5) by the produce of the labor of the inmates.

REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.

Under the Irish reformatory school act, passed in 1858, a capitation grant from the treasury is made of 6*s.* per week for each inmate. The following is a summary of the accounts for 1889:

Reformatory schools. P. Protestant; R. C. Roman Catholic.	Average number of inmates.	Cost of maintenance and management.	Rent and interest.	Expenses of disposal.	Building and land.	Total expenditure.
For boys.		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Malone, Belfast, P	76	1,698 13 9	65 18 6	88 12 9	25 5 6	1,878 10 6
Upton, county Cork, R. C*	.....	445 14 2	.....	87 18 7	62 5 6	595 18 3
Rehoboth Place, Dublin, P	15	393 2 4	27 10 0	6 14 5	.....	427 6 9
Phillipstown, King's County, R. C	280	5,451 1 9	99 6 0	317 5 2	†1,000 0 0	6,867 12 11
St. Kevin's Glencree, R. C	280	6,432 12 6	33 7 6	273 1 3	.....	6,739 1 3
For girls.						
Cork street, Dublin, P	10	261 15 5	35 0 0	5 2 9	.....	301 18 2
High Park, county Dublin, R. C	42	866 19 1	70 0 0	47 11 6	.....	984 10 7
St. Joseph's Limerick, R. C	27	578 8 4	183 4 6	29 5 2	.....	790 18 0
Spark's Lake, Monaghan, R. C	35	711 19 6	85 0 0	18 10 0	.....	815 9 6
Total	765	16,840 6 10	599 6 6	874 1 7	1,087 11 0	19,401 5 11

* Closed as a reformatory, April, 1889. † Good will of a new farm.

The total receipts in 1889 amounted to £20,217 0*s.* 7*d.*, of which sum £12,716 7*s.* 10*d.* was contributed out of treasury vote, £5,985 3*s.* 1*d.* from local rates, and from other sources £1,515 9*s.* 8*d.*, including estimated profits, £1,000. The average net cost per head, allowing for profit and loss, was £22 12*s.* 7*d.* in 1889. In the case of Upton Reformatory School, owing to decreased numbers, its certificate was withdrawn early in 1889, the boys being transferred to Phillipstown and Glencree, and on the 13th April of that year it was certified as an Industrial School instead.

For the support and the training of the young poor who have not sunk so low as to require a sentence of penal labor or confinement to be recorded against them, industrial schools have been established in various parts of the country. These institutions are supported in the same manner as reformatory schools, and all the inmates receive instructions in whatever trade or service they may be most capable, so as to turn them out with the means of earning their own livelihood.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS IN IRELAND.

Summary of accounts year ending 31st December, 1889.

hools.	No. of inmates, 1889.	Total cost of maintenance and management.	Rent and interest.	Expenses of disposal.	Building and land.	Total expenditure.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
unty:						
ian Ship,						
ast, P.....	239	4,545 8 11	.....	151 16 11	365 18 2	5,063 4 0
odge, Bel-						
P.....	105	1,563 2 5	5 1 8	.....	.....	1,568 4 1
ton House,						
ast, P.....	99	1,566 15 3	135 0 0	48 15 0	404 2 6	2,154 12 9
wn, Belfast..	152	2,300 6 6	103 6 8	53 19 4	.....	2,457 12 6
atrick's Fe-						
, Belfast....	128	2,310 15 0	250 0 0	108 0 0	200 0 0	2,868 15 0
ock Lodge,						
ast, P.....	40	725 2 10	69 0 3	18 3 4	.....	812 6 5
stown	55	817 0 4	60 0 0	21 10 0	60 10 0	959 0 4
n	52	810 0 10	25 0 0	.....	.....	835 0 10
nty: St. Jo-						
Cavan.....	89	1,519 0 11	200 0 0	25 6 8	.....	1,744 7 7
ity: Ennis...	82	1,266 19 10	291 10 0	38 10 0	.....	1,596 19 10
ity:						
ysius, Clon-						
y.....	135	2,400 11 7	270 0 0	109 0 0	366 11 0	3,146 2 7
oleman's,						
nstown.....	46	775 16 9	90 0 0	10 0 0	.....	875 16 9
ady of Mer-						
Kinsale.....	157	2,273 6 4	324 0 0	80 0 6	.....	2,677 6 10
, Cork	151	2,240 10 3	221 11 1	.....	312 10 6	2,774 11 10
ness' Home,						
mire, P.....	18	484 8 8	53 0 0	6 16 4	.....	544 5 0
Home, Black-						
, P.....	44	925 0 3	175 14 3	29 3 0	.....	1,129 17 6
v	65	948 14 3	100 0 0	90 0 0	.....	1,138 14 3
ge West.....	38	618 15 0	100 0 0	20 0 0	53 0 0	791 15 0
ore.....	96	1,749 5 1	31 10 0	.....	1,245 0 10	3,025 15 11
:						
nbar's, Sun-						
s Well.....	133	2,358 8 6	87 10 0	175 6 10	.....	2,621 4 6
mount.....	188	3,497 7 10	201 10 0	53 10 0	170 4 8	3,922 12 6
holas, Cove-						
t, P.....	70	1,692 4 1	.....	11 9 1	.....	1,703 13 2
ing-home,						
n quay, P...	89	595 5 7	35 0 0	9 8 9	.....	639 14 4
unty:						
s	797	15,133 3 2	1,925 14 0	480 0 0	766 3 4	18,305 0 6
stown.....	136	2,472 3 2	67 17 6	109 0 0	.....	2,649 0 8
Bridge.....	151	2,352 14 6	732 7 10	127 9 7	.....	3,212 11 11
re	103	1,907 11 6	40 0 0	10 0 0	235 6 0	2,192 17 6
ary's Lake-						
's, Sandy-						
nt.....	70	1,179 19 6	267 10 0	42 0 0	.....	1,489 9 6
, Blackrock,						
.....	124	2,039 5 10	56 13 2	119 0 2	.....	2,214 19 2
n	152	2,978 0 0	192 10 0	60 0 0	.....	3,230 10 0
bury street,						
lin, P.....	44	907 17 3	32 0 0	13 6 8	.....	953 3 11
unty:						
Bridget's,						
ghrhea	114	1,688 17 3	149 0 0	79 5 0	96 15 0	2,013 17 3
aloe.....	77	1,068 14 5	810 0 0	49 19 0	575 0 0	2,003 13 5
.....	87	1,226 15 6	83 0 0	38 10 0	35 10 0	1,383 15 6
frack.....	148	2,300 0 0	156 0 0	.....	.....	2,456 0 0
erard.....	40	771 17 10	60 0 0	19 0 6	.....	850 18 4
ne's, Galway.	78	1,416 7 0	160 0 0	35 0 0	.....	1,611 7 0
l	201	3,770 11 0	539 5 1	53 19 8	132 5 11	4,496 1 8
nty:						
ney.....	103	1,336 1 11	320 16 0	42 17 10	516 17 0	2,216 12 9
eph's, Tralee	99	1,957 17 3	.....	17 11 7	.....	1,975 8 10
oke Alms-						
e, Tralee....	70	1,048 19 7	.....	126 4 11	.....	1,175 4 6
County:						
ny, Male....	162	2,754 3 7	363 5 6	.....	762 6 7	3,879 15 8
ny, Female..	104	2,164 18 0	297 0 0	60 0 0	.....	2,521 18 0
County: St.						
Parsonstown.	82	1,274 18 6	66 3 10	34 18 8	.....	1,376 1 0
County:						
rge's.....	99	1,144 10 6	655 12 10	32 8 6	.....	1,832 11 10
ncent's.....	135	2,346 9 7	60 0 0	162 0 0	.....	2,568 9 7
ck, Male....	148	2,686 0 0	178 6 9	19 15 0	.....	2,884 1 9

Summary of accounts year ending 31st December, 1889—Continued.

Schools.	No. of inmates, 1889.	Total cost of maintenance and management.	Rent and interest.	Expenses of disposal.	Building and land.	Total expenditure.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Longford County:						
Newtownforbes	149	2,775 12 7	30 0 0	50 0 0	.....	2,855 12 7
Louth County:						
House of Charity, Drogheda	100	1,909 7 2	64 0 0	.....	.....	1,973 7 2
Dundalk	91	1,580 5 0	31 15 2	35 10 0	.....	1,647 10 2
Mayo County:						
Westport	106	1,435 11 4	325 0 0	.....	.....	1,760 11 4
Ballaghaderreen	76	2,065 0 0	216 0 0	71 0 0	.....	2,352 0 0
Monaghan County: St. Martha's, Monaghan	74	1,336 4 2	60 0 0	40 0 0	.....	1,436 4 2
Roscommon County:						
Roscommon	51	1,351 11 2	50 0 0	20 0 0	.....	1,421 11 2
Summerhill, Athlone	147	2,992 17 11	250 0 0	.....	.....	3,242 17 11
Benada, Tobercurry	53	996 0 4	52 10 0	.....	.....	1,048 10 4
Sligo County: St. Laurence, Sligo	123	3,125 18 3	285 15 2	.....	.....	3,411 13 5
Tipperary County:						
Clonmel	149	2,612 13 2	187 1 8	80 6 0	177 4 2	3,057 5 0
St. Augustine's, Templemore	66	1,316 2 4	120 0 0	.....	.....	1,436 2 4
St. Francis, Cashel	108	1,722 10 9	55 0 0	57 5 0	160 6 9	1,995 2 6
St. Louis, Thurles	45	772 0 0	15 0 0	40 0 0	.....	827 0 0
Tipperary	82	1,115 0 10	233 15 2	28 18 6	.....	1,377 14 6
Tyrone County: St. Catharine's, Strabane	101	1,634 6 3	142 10 0	67 10 0	.....	1,844 6 3
Waterford County:						
Cappoquin	54	1,064 0 1	65 0 0	.....	.....	1,129 0 1
St. Dominick, Waterford	123	2,300 17 6	230 0 0	74 0 0	.....	2,604 17 6
Westmeath County: Mount Carmel, Moate	53	855 17 6	121 0 0	18 0 0	250 0 0	1,244 17 6
Wexford County:						
St. Aidan's New Ross	73	1,042 17 2	248 0 0	54 3 2	.....	1,345 0 [illegible]
St. Michael's, Wexford	106	1,932 3 3	106 15 0	38 10 5	.....	2,077 8 [illegible]
Wicklow County:						
Meath, Bray, P.	43	832 1 3	0 11 0	17 15 8	30 1 3	880 [illegible]
Rathdrum	56	1,180 8 11	15 0 0	.....	80 0 0	1,275 8 [illegible]
Total	7,574	133,861 10 9	12,446 9 7	3,486 0 9	6,995 13 8	156,789 1[illegible]

The Irish industrial schools act (31 Vic., c. 25), passed on 29th May, 1868. The number of sch[illegible] having certificates on 31st December, 1889, was 70—11 Protestant and 59 Roman Catholic—21 for b[illegible] 48 for girls, 1 mixed school for young boys and girls. Protestant schools are marked P; all the [illegible] Roman Catholic.

The total receipts in 1889 were £144,687 6*s.* 1*d.*, the expenditure £156,789 14*s.* 9*d.*, towards which [illegible] Treasury contributed £93,508 13*s.* 5*d.* The amount received from local rates was £34,552 14*s.* 1*d.*, [illegible] from other sources £16,625 18*s.* 7 *d.*, including estimated profits, £10,000. The average netcost [illegible] head, allowing for profit and loss, was £18 4*s.* 4*d.*

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

Indiscriminate dispensation of both public and private charity h[illegible] always been found to defeat the object the charitably disposed m[illegible] have in view.

It exercises on the recipient a debasing influence by inducing him t[illegible] lose his relf-respect and to become dependent upon others for his su[illegible] port.

Whatever quantity of destitution there may be in Ireland it may b[illegible] traced to removable causes. Charity and the relief of the poor shou[illegible] only involve a question of expediency, and no system of distributi[illegible] *will ultimately* be productive of benefit unless it has for its object t[illegible] *total abolition* of the cause.

In times of famine and great distress the Imperial Government has lways found it more expedient to give temporary employment to the oor. New roads and railways are constructed, harbors and piers uilt, and waste land reclaimed.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

In every workhouse the sexes are separated except in case of a male hild under two years, who will be permitted to stop with its mother. No arriage is permitted between paupers whilst domiciled at the exense of the community.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT.

I am indebted for the material facts contained in this report to the ourtesy of John J. O'Meara, solicitor and a member of the corporation of the city of Dublin.

ALEX. J. REID,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Dublin, April 8, 1892.

BELFAST.

REPORT BY CONSUL RUBY.

(1) There is no special method in operation in this country for regulating or controlling the tramp element, except that those who obtain elief at a workhouse are, if able, compelled to do three hours' work. t is only in rural districts that they can be effectually dealt with, as heir presence in such places soon becomes known. The police visits he workhouses every morning to see if any of the casuals (tramps) orrespond with the description of any criminals wanted.

(2) There is a relieving officer connected with each workhouse who, after inquiring into the merits of a case, issues an order upon the workhouse master, and the person presenting the same obtains indoor relief. Outdoor relief is distributed by relieving officers in urgent cases and ubsequently reported to the guardians. All applications are carefully onsidered, and no case of genuine destitution is refused relief.

(3) Any persons found begging are liable to arrest, but the law is ot strictly enforced. In the rural districts they are not interfered with t all, and in the cities only when persisting after having been cautioned y the police.

(4) Except in the case of children, no attempt is made to render repients of charity self-supporting. It is optional with the board of uardians of workhouses to place orphan or deserted children out with urses, and in this district the "boarding out" system has proved a

great success as compared with rearing the children in the workhou

(5) There is no "indiscriminate dispensation of charities."

(6) The best system for distribution of charities in this district is a above stated, through relieving officers connected with the workhouses.

(7) No effort is made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers. Inmates of workhouses can discharge themselves at will, and once outside are free to act as they please.

SAMUEL G. RUBY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Belfast, 8th April, 1892.

SCOTLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL BRUCE, OF LEITH.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) "Tramps" are under no statutory control or regulation. They are not interfered with by the police so long as they do not commit any statutory or common law offense. But, twice a year, namely, in June and December, a census is taken of the vagrant class—including tramps—throughout Scotland. The results of such census are shown in the printed tables appended hereto, which are extracted from a book published by the British Government entitled, "Thirty-third Annual Report of her Majesty's Inspector of Constabulary for Scotland, for the year ending 15th of March, 1891," to wit:

Return of vagrants reported in counties during the last ten years, 1881—1890.

Year.	Total Number.	Year.	Total Number.
1881	87,749	1886	94,5[illegible]
1882	88,794	1887	103,6[illegible]
1883	83,726	1888	109,4[illegible]
1884	89,858	1889	108,6[illegible]
1885	94,452	1890	99,2[illegible]

Return of vagrants and others convicted of begging in cities and burgs during the past ten years, 1881—1890.

Year.	Convictions.	Year.	Convictions.
1881	1,500	1886	1,7[illegible]
1882	1,251	1887	2,1[illegible]
1883	1,165	1888	1,7[illegible]
1884	1,421	1889	1,2[illegible]
1885	1,426	1890	[illegible]

The number of common lodging houses under police supervision was 1481.

turn of the census taken of the vagrants, beggars, migratory poor etc., on tramp within the county, city, and burg police districts in Scotland on the nights of Sunday the 22d June and 21st December, 1890.

ne 22 9,323
cember 21 7,642

Analysis of the returns of census of vagrants, etc., for the years 1888, 1889, and 1890.

Date.	Total number of vagrants.	Counties.		Burgh.	
		Number.	Vagrants per 1000 of population.	Number.	Vagrants per 1000 of population.
ne 22, 1890	9,323	6,446	3.	2,877	1.55
ne 23, 1889	9,601	6,436	3.04	3,165	1.72
ne, 1888*					
cember 21, 1890	7,642	4,923	2.29	2,718	1.47
cember 22, 1889	7,933	5,066	2.39	2,867	1.56
cember 23, 1888	8,302	5,030	2.38	3,272	1.8

* No census taken.

Table 5 is extracted from a report relative to the city of Edinburgh nstabulary for year ended December 31, 1891, showing "census of e vagrants, beggars, migratory poor, etc., on tramp within the city lice district," Edinburgh. The table shows the numbers found in ch of the three years 1889, 1890, 1891, resulting as follows:

ne 21, 1891 634
cember 27, 1891 727
ne 22, 1890 770
cember 21, 1890 679
ne 23, 1889 604
cember 22, 1889 526

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) Apart from parochial boards, by means of charitable institutions d societies, churches, and church and home mission agencies. The rochial board which administers the poor law in each parish gives asional outdoor relief to applicants when their circumstances appear cessitous, and a shelter house is maintained where vagrants are acmmodated for one night; but the amount expended in the former case omparatively trifling owing to the impositions that are systematically acticed by this class of persons. Charitable institutions in Edinburgh d Leith are very numerous, as will be seen by reference to the small lume sent with this report (A), published by the Edinburgh Charities gistration Union and entitled "Second Annual Report and Handok of Edinburgh and Leith Charities and Benevolent Institutions." ere are several papers in this book setting forth the advantages of öperation in the dispensation of charity by preventing the misapplition of the funds of charitable institutions and showing the need for ecking and exposing attempts at imposition.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) Begging is illegal, and its punishment and suppression are in the

hands of the police authorities. The general police act of 1862, affe ing Scotland, has a section dealing with the "suppression of vagran in which it is directed that vagrants, beggars, etc., shall be app hended and, upon conviction, be imprisoned.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) There are no agencies in operation in this district with the obje of converting beggars and tramps to self-supporting members of soc ety, unless for the purpose of assisting them to employment. Tramp are so closely watched by the police that they rarely remain in a tow longer than a day and night. In the Edinburg House of Refuge f the Destitute applicants get a meal before retiring to rest and anoth in the morning before they leave, and similar aid and shelter is giv in the night asylum and Stranger's Friend Society. In many cases he is given to those who have an honest desire for employment. But th class of beggars rarely settle down to work after an experience of tran life.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) The effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of charity is pauperize and demoralize the individual. Among the various phila thropic agencies existing in Edinburgh and Leith, referred to in answ to foregoing second question, having for their object the discourag ment of mendicancy and the prevention of waste in dispensing charit I may specially mention the Edinburgh Charities Registration Unic whose handbook or second annual report accompanies this report, a the Edinburg Association for Improving the Condition of the Po They are accomplishing very satisfactorily the work which they ha proposed to do.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEM.

(6) The methods generally in use for the distribution of charity Edinburgh and Leith are unsatisfactory, wasteful, and pauperizing, a to counteract these effects the association called the Edinburgh Ch ities Registration Union was formed a few years ago for the purpose regulating the distribution of charity and detecting cases of overl ping, and is doing good work. Another valuable institution havi similar aims is the Association for Improving the Condition of the Po It has always realized the importance of the "labor test" in affordi the unemployed the opportunity of earning an honest wage instead merely receiving alms.

The tramp whom one is accustomed to see every day passing alo the highways of the country and obtaining a most precarious living regarded as little else than a social outcast and is treated according His circumstances engender the disposition to steal, as starvation m often be the alternative. After lapsing into crime, principally pe thefts, he is practically outside the pale of all sympathy.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

) "Paupers" is a term applied in this country to persons in receipt ırochial relief. There are no restrictions upon such marriages, but circumstances under which such paupers exist, as, old age, imbecil- physical infirmity, or other cause preventing active work, are such) render marriages unlikely. Amongst vagrants or tramps one scarcely tell whether there are intermarriages They do not herd ıeir wanderings. They are either in single families or in groups of or three men. Marriages amongst them must consequently be

WALLACE BRUCE,
Consul.

NITED STATES CONSULATE FOR LEITH,
Edinburgh, April 14, 1892.

BLE 1.—*Return of vagrants reported in counties during the ten years 1881–1890.*

Counties.	1881.				1885.			
	Male adults.	Female adults.	Children.	Total.	Male adults.	Female adults.	Children.	Total.
een	148	54	65	267	287	76	59	422
l	368	267	206	841	329	192	173	694
	12,053	4,327	1,438	17,818	11,921	3,412	1,229	16,562
	345	107	65	517	354	110	68	532
ck	383	68	69	520	1,205	251	209	1,665
	6	7	6	19	4	6	5	15
ness	256	40	10	306	446	85	25	556
nannan	447	228	164	839	562	118	89	769
arton	730	344	508	1,582	1,282	499	607	2,388
ies	6,590	1,041	651	8,282	6,162	813	487	7,462
urgh	5,415	2,442	233	8,090	8,977	3,548	1,641	14,166
	259	48	16	323	570	84	44	698
	2,725	1,126	609	4,460	2,824	1,023	686	4,533
	2,796	1,106	205	4,107	3,089	1,331	371	4,791
ngton	1,751	213	122	2,086	2,328	208	161	2,697
ness	942	144	222	1,308	1,396	210	105	1,711
rdine	118	108	70	296	151	77	8	236
s	686	167	41	894	627	200	105	932
ıdbright	1,434	316	133	1,883	1,736	252	84	2,082
k	5,135	2,029	1,609	8,773	5,662	1,615	1,207	8,484
ıgow	6,051	2,367	1,058	9,476	4,200	1,186	875	6,261
	180	95	110	385	80	36	26	142
s	255	144	122	521	607	162	122	981
	3,456	2,059	975	6,490	4,020	2,345	1,429	7,704
ew	625	303	220	1,148	589	264	132	985
nd Cromarty	304	52	43	399	361	109	106	576
ırgh	1,229	262	150	1,641	996	300	64	1,360
k	405	118	65	588	520	76	81	677
ıg	1,279	439	169	1,887	1,040	366	262	1,668
rland	218	28	6	252	520	101	22	643
wn	1,236	335	180	1,751	1,008	217	135	1,360
Total	57,825	20,384	9,540	87,749	63,853	19,982	10,617	94,452

TABLE 1.—*Return of vagrants reported in counties during the ten years 1881–1890*—Cont

Counties.	1888.				1890.			
	Male Adults.	Female Adults.	Children.	Total.	Male Adults.	Female Adults.	Children.	To
Aberdeen	408	139	180	727	302	121	171	[illegible]
Argyll	412	169	96	677	521	170	48	[illegible]
Ayr	12,062	3,338	1,344	16,744	8,074	2,526	904	11,[illegible]
Banff	1,574	336	267	2,177	1,325	300	432	2,[illegible]
Berwick	1,318	285	285	1,888	1,094	271	213	1,[illegible]
Bute	10	10	19	45	45	29	32	[illegible]
Caithness	641	82	20	743	506	98	23	[illegible]
Clackmannan	400	169	163	732	427	143	131	[illegible]
Dumbarton	1,767	651	365	2,783	1,366	443	130	1,[illegible]
Dumfries	6,925	871	530	8,326	6,079	854	545	8,[illegible]
Edinburgh	7,257	2,106	968	10,331	6,633	2,184	1,508	10,[illegible]
Elgin	745	147	90	982	677	113	42	[illegible]
Fife	3,407	1,205	789	5,401	2,804	1,186	692	4,[illegible]
Forfar	3,630	1,504	498	5,632	6,823	3,201	1,845	11,[illegible]
Haddington	2,254	225	105	2,584	2,039	179	92	2,[illegible]
Inverness	1,542	198	122	1,862	1,221	209	216	1,[illegible]
Kincardine	1,463	441	357	2,261	1,340	357	282	1,[illegible]
Kinross	529	166	104	799	453	169	106	[illegible]
Kirkcudbright	1,993	347	144	2,484	1,958	414	143	2,[illegible]
Lanark	7,129	1,580	1,555	10,264	5,842	1,289	1,296	8,[illegible]
Linlithgow	4,720	1,034	1,043	6,797	4,641	932	813	6,[illegible]
Nairn	1,063	291	75	1,429	222	107	56	[illegible]
Peebles	498	152	167	817	493	114	94	[illegible]
Perth	4,779	2,541	1,650	8,970	4,574	2,826	2,149	9,[illegible]
Renfrew	526	315	94	935	658	302	178	1,[illegible]
Ross and Cromarty	970	114	123	1,207	941	252	87	1,[illegible]
Roxburgh	1,738	245	181	2,164	1,561	219	178	1,[illegible]
Selkirk	3,444	723	508	4,675	765	170	182	1,[illegible]
Stirling	1,396	347	186	1,929	876	281	104	1,[illegible]
Sutherland	652	104	11	767	442	73	21	[illegible]
Wigtown	1,893	298	90	2,281	1,395	201	95	1,[illegible]
Total	77,145	20,139	12,129	109,413	66,697	19,733	12,808	99,[illegible]

TABLE 2.—*Return of vagrants and others convicted of begging in cities and burghs during the ten years, 1881–1890, and the number of common lodging houses under police supervision.*

Cities and burghs, and burghs policed by counties.		1881.			1885.			1888.			1890.			Number of common lodging houses
Counties.	Cities and burghs.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
Aberdeen	Aberdeen	41	6	47	51	7	58	46	6	52	11	3	14	
	Fraserburgh	3		3	5	1	6	3		3	1		1	
	Huntly	1		1							1		1	
	Inverurie	2		2	4		4	6		6	1	1	2	
	Peterhead				2		2	3		3				
	Turriff							4		4	1		1	
Argyll	Campbeltown	2		2	2	1	3	3		3	1	1	2	
	Dunoon							6		6				
	Inverary										4		4	
	Lochgilphead	1		1	7	1	8	1	1	2	5	2	7	
	Oban	3	3	6	16		16	12	4	16	1		1	
Ayr	Ayr	28	9	37	16	4	20	41	16	57	11	2	13	
	Ardrossan	1		1				15		15	1	1	2	
	Cumnock										5		5	
	Galston	5	3	8				13		13	1		1	
	Girvan										6	2	8	
	Irvine	5	3	8							7		7	

LE 2.—*Return of vagrants and others convicted of begging in cities and burghs during the ten years, 1881–1890, etc.*—Continued.

es and burghs, and burghs policed by counties.		1881.			1885.			1888.			1890.			Number of common lodging-houses under police supervision.
ounties.	Cities and burghs.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
.....	Kilmarnock	12	4	16	15	2	17	12	....	12	6	....	6	18
	Kilwinning	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3
	Largs	8	2	10	8	1	9	8	....	8	2	....	2	4
	Maybole	1	....	1	9	2	11	6	....	6	2	....	2	2
	Saltcoats	....	....	....	....	....	....	34	2	36	10	1	11	3
	Stewarton	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	4
.....	Banff	6	....	6	....	....	....	9	....	9	3	....	3	1
	Buckie	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	2
	Cullen	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	1	1	....
	Dufftown	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3
	Keith	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	2	10	4
	Macduff	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
	Portsoy	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	2	2
rick	Coldstream	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3
	Duns	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3
	Eyemouth	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
	Lauder	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
.....	Rothesay	4	2	6	3	2	5	1	1	2	5	2	7	1
ness.....	Thurso	1	....	1	1	1	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Wick	2	....	2	1	....	1	5	....	5	....	....	....	....
	Pulteneytown	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
kmannan....	Alloa	6	1	7	15	1	16	14	....	14	13	1	14	4
	Dollar	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
narty.....	Cromarty	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2
barton	Clydebank	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	....
	Dumbarton	2	1	3	19	3	22	26	3	29	18	....	18	17
	Helensburgh	7	....	7	....	....	....	5	....	5	1	....	1	15
	Kirkintilloch	9	....	9	3	2	5	1	....	1	....	1	1	16
fries	Annan	2	....	2	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	....
	Dumfries	12	6	18	19	2	21	17	4	21	13	1	14	4
	Lochmaben	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	....
	Lockerbie	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Moffat	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	....
	Sanquhar	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
burgh	City of Edinburgh	235	120	355	187	51	238	320	92	412	127	15	142	44
	Leith	31	4	35	57	3	60	18	2	20	10	1	11	9
	Dalkeith	7	1	8	5	1	6	1	....	1	2	....	2	5
	Musselburgh	3	....	3	4	....	4	5	2	7	2	1	3	3
	Portobello	2	....	2	9	....	9	....	3	3	1	1	2	2
.....	Elgin	8	2	10	6	....	6	12	1	13	3	....	3	3
	Forres	10	2	12	1	1	2	13	4	17	1	....	1	4
	Rothes	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3
.....	Dunfermline	31	7	38	40	5	45	27	1	28	17	2	19	7
	Kirkcaldy	1	1	2	2	....	2	5	....	5	5	1	6	4
	Anstruther Easter	2	....	2	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	3
	Auchtermuchty	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
	Burntisland	3	....	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	2
	Cupar	13	2	15	5	1	6	7	....	7	5	2	7	5
	Dysart	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Inverkeithing	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Kilrenny	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Kinghorn	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Leven	1	....	1	5	....	5	....	....	....	....	....	....	2
	Lochgelly	2	....	2	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	3
	Newburgh	....	....	....	1	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
	Pittenweem	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
	St Andrews	1	....	1	6	1	7	14	1	15	1	....	1	1
	Tayport	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	2	1
ar.....	Arbroath	10	1	11	12	2	14	2	2	4	4	2	6	4
	Brechin	3	....	3	7	2	9	3	1	4	....	....	....	1
	Broughty Ferry	6	4	10	1	2	3	7	....	7	7	....	7	1
	Dundee	71	21	92	56	8	64	39	11	50	14	2	16	119
	Forfar	6	1	7	6	....	6	1	....	1	6	....	6	1
	Kirriemuir	2	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....

Table 2.—*Return of vagrants and others convicted of begging in cities and burghs during the ten years, 1881–1890, etc.*—Continued.

Counties.	Cities and burghs.	1881. Male.	1881. Female.	1881. Total.	1885. Male.	1885. Female.	1885. Total.	1888. Male.	1888. Female.	1888. Total.	1890. Male.	1890. Female.	1890. Total.	Number of common lodging-houses under police supervision.
Forfar	Montrose	5	2	7	3		3	1		1	1		1	3
Haddington	Dunbar	5		5	5		5	21	3	24	7		7	4
	Haddington		1	1	4	2	6	5		5	1	1	2	11
	North Berwick							2		2	7		7	
Inverness	Inverness	3	1	4	14	1	15	3	2	5		4	4	5
Kincardine	Stonehaven										2		2	4
	Bervie*													2
Kinross	Kinross													5
	Milnathort													3
Kirkcudbright	Castle Douglas													3
	Dalbeattie													3
	Gatehouse													2
	Kirkcudbright													3
	Maxwelltown				2		2	2		2				1
	New Galloway													
Lanark	Airdrie	25	7	32	2		2	3	1	4	4		4	20
	Coatbridge				3	1	4	2		2	1		1	3
	City of Glasgow†	259	103	362	219	103	322	262	73	335	166	51	217	86
	Govan	2		2	5		5	7	1	8	2	1	3	
	Hamilton	5	3	8	56	10	66	52	6	58	13	3	16	35
	Lanark				5	1	6				1		1	4
	Govanhill	1		1	1		1	1		1	1		1	
	Hillhead	1	2	3	11	2	13	7	1	8	1		1	
	Maryhill				4		4	4		4	2		2	78
	Motherwell													
	Partick	28	31	59	56	25	81	62	7	69	18	1	19	21
	Rutherglen													4
	Wishaw		1	1		2	2	2	1	3				2
Linlithgow	Bathgate													7
	Bo'ness													5
	Linlithgow										1	1	2	1
	South Queensferry										2		2	
Nairn	Nairn	8	2	10	5	1	6	6		6	2		2	7
Peebles	Peebles	16	3	19	16	2	18	24	2	26	9	1	10	4
Perth	Blairgowrie				11	1	12	3	1	4	5		5	4
	Crieff					1	1	1	1	2	3		3	5
	City of Perth	2	2	4	3	3	6	3	3	6	12	3	15	19
	Alyth							2		2	1		1	2
Renfrew	Crosshill	1		1										
	Greenock	12	2	14	18	2	20	21	31	52	10	17	27	256
	Johnstone							5	2	7	6	1	7	5
	Paisley	1		1				4		4	9	2	11	12
	Pollockshields, East.	3		3	7		7				3	2	5	3
	Port-Glasgow	4	1	5				1		1				125
	Renfrew				1		1	1		1				
	Pollockshields, West.													
	Kinning Park							2	1	3				
	Pollokshaws							2		2				
	Gourock‡													6
Ross	Dingwall							8		8	5	1	6	2
	Tain							2		2		2	2	3
	Fortrose													
	Stornoway													9
Roxburgh	Hawick	24	1	25	6		6	22	2	24	13	2	15	1
	Jedburgh	5		5	14	2	16	4	1	5	1		1	2
	Kelso	2		2	5		5	3	1	4	3		3	8
Selkirk	Galashiels	44	8	52	9	3	12	35	6	41	21	2	23	4
	Selkirk	6	1	7	17	1	18	23	2	25	4		4	22
Stirling	Falkirk	22	5	27	15	5	20	6	1	7	27	1	28	14
	Stirling	12	7	19	19	2	21	14	4	18	4	1	5	

* Act not enforced. † Created a burgh in 1885. ‡ No court.

ABLE 2.—*Return of vagrants and others convicted of begging in cities and burghs during the ten years, 1881–1890, etc.*—Continued.

ities and burghs, and burghs policed by counties.		1881.			1885.			1888.			1890.			Number of common lodging-houses under police supervision.
Counties.	Cities and burghs.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
Sutherland	Dornoch	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	9
Wigtown	Newton-Stewart	....	....	....	2	....	2	....	2	2	1	....	1	3
	Stranraer	....	....	....	3	....	3	4	....	4	2	1	3	6
	Wigtown*	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
	Whithorn	3	....	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	2	2
Total		1,111	3,89	1,500	1,149	2,77	1,426	1,402	312	1,714	622	146	868	1,481

* Act not enforced.

ABLE 3.—*Analysis of the returns of census of vagrants, etc., for the years 1888, 1889, and 1890.*

Date.	Total vagrants.	Male adults.		Female adults.		Children under 14 years of age.	
		No.	*Per cent.*	*No.*	*Per cent.*	*No.*	*Per cent.*
ne 22, 1890	9,323	5,915	63	1,986	21	1,422	15
ne 23, 1889	9,601	5,982	62	2,108	22	1,511	16
ne —, 1888*	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
c. 21, 1890	7,642	4,975	65	1,596	21	1,071	14
c. 22, 1889	7,933	5,043	64	1,766	22	1,124	14
c. 23, 1888	8,302	5,334	64	1,828	22	1,140	14

Date.	Nationality.								Counties.		Burgh.	
	Scotch.		Irish.		English.		Foreign.		No.	Vagrants per 1,000 of population.	No.	Vagrants per 1,000 of population.
	No.	*P. ct.*	*No.*	*P. ct.*	*No.*	*P. ct.*	*No.*	*P. ct.*				
ne 22, 1890	5,852	63	2,327	25	986	10	158	2	6,446	3	2,877	1.55
ne 23, 1889	6,040	63	2,451	26	984	10	126	1	6,436	3.04	3,165	1.72
ne —, 1888*	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
c. 21, 1890	5,081	67	1,762	23	704	9	95	1	4,923	2.29	2,719	1.47
c. 22, 1889	4,963	63	2,034	25	864	11	72	1	5,066	2.39	2,867	1.56
c. 23, 1888	5,199	63	2,125	25	898	11	80	1	5,030	2.38	3.272	1.8

* No census taken.

No. 4.—*Census of the vagrants, beggars, migratory poor, etc., on tramp, within the city police district of Edinburgh.*

	Midnight.					
	June 21, 1891.	Dec. 27, 1891.	June 22, 1890.	Dec. 21, 1890.	June 23, 1889.	Dec. 22, 1889.
Found in prisons or police cells:						
Adults M	20	24	11	13	16	12
Adults F	26	7	11	4	7	10
Children of 14 years and under M	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Children of 14 years and under F	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	46	31	22	17	23	22
Found in houses of refuge, hospitals, and poorhouses:						
Adults M	40	65	57	40	51	41
Adults F	30	25	21	24	16	17
Children of 14 years and under M	.....	1	2	.....	3	.....
Children of 14 years and under F	3	.....	2	1	8	.....
Total	73	91	82	65	78	58
Found in common lodging and other houses:						
Adults M	380	468	518	456	309	310
Adults F	97	105	108	99	130	104
Children of 14 years and under M	13	9	15	15	19	15
Children of 14 years and under F	7	18	15	20	15	12
Total	497	600	656	590	473	441
Found in public parks, gardens, or streets, outhouses, sheds, barns; or about pits, brick, or other works:						
Adults M	6	3	5	5	19	2
Adults F	12	2	5	2	10	2
Children of 14 years and under M	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....
Children of 14 years and under F	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	18	5	10	7	30	4
Scotch:						
Adults M	251	341	344	312	237	205
Adults F	123	99	117	102	118	95
Children of 14 years and under M	11	6	13	14	13	10
Children of 14 years and under F	6	15	13	20	13	10
Total	391	461	487	448	381	320
Irish:						
Adults M	142	152	167	128	121	108
Adults F	30	24	14	21	36	31
Children of 14 years and under M	1	3	2	.....	8	2
Children of 14 years and under F	2	3	1	1	9	2
Total	175	182	184	150	174	143
English:						
Adults M	32	53	70	59	36	47
Adults F	11	16	14	6	9	7
Children of 14 years and under M	1	1	2	1	2	3
Children of 14 years and under F	2	.....	3	.....	1	.....
Total	46	70	89	66	48	57
Foreign:						
Adults M	21	14	10	15	1	6
Adults F	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Children of 14 years and under M	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Children of 14 years and under F	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	22	14	10	15	1	6
Total number found:						
Adults M	446	560	591	514	395	366
Adults F	165	139	145	129	163	133
Children of 14 years and under M	13	10	17	15	23	15
Children of 14 years and under F	10	18	17	21	23	12
Grand total	634	727	770	679	604	526

AYRSHIRE MENDICITY SOCIETY.

[Supplementary report by Consul Bruce of Leith.]

In supplement to my report on public charities and vagrancy within the consular district of Edinburgh and Leith, forwarded to Washington, 14th ultimo, pursuant to a circular of instruction from the Department of State, I beg respectfully to transmit herewith a communication received from Capt. Hardy McHardy, lately of the royal navy, chief constable of Ayrshire, Scotland, to whom I had written for information required for my report, but whose answer, sent herewith, came to hand after my report had been mailed to Washington.

Ayrshire is not within this consular district, but in the course of making inquiries on the subject, I was recommended to apply for information to Capt. McHardy, who has been secretary to the Ayrshire Mendicity Society since its formation in the year 1885, and is esteemed a high authority on the subject of vagrancy. His letter and its accompanying printed matter show how well vagrancy is understood and how successfully it is dealt with in the county of Ayr, and I believe it will be found a valuable addition to the report already furnished.

WALLACE BRUCE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE FOR LEITH,
Edinburgh, Scotland, May 5, 1892.

CHIEF CONSTABLE'S OFFICE, *Ayr, April 19, 1892.*

DEAR SIR: Referring to your letter of 6th instant, and my reply of the 8th instant, I have now the pleasure of sending you particulars of the "Ayrshire Mendicity Society."

The society was established in 1885. I send you by this post copies of the annual reports (6) that have been published since its formation. The sphere of operations of the society is the whole of the county of Ayr, the population of which is 224,222, and its area 1,128 square miles, or 722,229 acres.

For an explanation of the society's system I take leave to refer to the first annual report, pages 5 and 6. It will be noticed that this society is for the relief of destitute wayfarers only. The resident poor are precluded from the operations of the society, and the system is, as a consequence, different from ordinary societies for the organization of charitable relief. These latter are established with the purpose of investigating cases of want or distress among the resident poor, discriminating the deserving from the undeserving, and providing, so far as circumstances admit, that the relief given is suitable and adequate. Our county society is designed to provide a missing link in ordinary charity organization societies, namely, the supply of necessary food and lodging relief to wayfarers really in want, and thus removing all foundation for the plea of starvation from such people.

Worked as the system is, through the machinery of the county constabulary force, the charitable are provided with the means of supplying, to strangers on tramp who may appeal for assistance, the necessary relief with the least risk of their charity being abused.

The following were the considerations which suggested the establishment of our County Mendicity Society:

In Scotland the poor law, unlike the English poor law, does not admit of relief being given, under any circumstances, to able-bodied persons or their dependents. This being so, persons unexpectedly thrown out of employment, and who have not a nest egg laid by to meet the occasion, are necessarily dependent upon private charity for support until they obtain other employment.

In 1885, the year in which our society was established, trade was dull in this country, and a certain number of bona fide, unemployed laborers were going through the country seeking employment and requiring to be assisted on their way. It is quite impossible for the charitable public to discriminate among strangers on tramp who appeal for assistance, the few who are really traveling in search of work from the many who are begging from choice, as it is the latter, practiced as they are in imposture, that can give the most plausible accounts of their misfortunes, and succeed in satisfying those who listen to their tales that they are genuine workingmen in destitution through no fault of their own.

Attempt to avoid giving money by supplying food relief only and obliging the recipients to eat what they required and not to take any away with them was overcome by pleas that they were without means of obtaining shelter, and solicitations for the few coppers that would pay for their lodgings.

The experience of our society is that it meets the above difficulties most completely.

It is capable of being worked in connection with societies established on the principle of the charity organization societies for the relief of the resident poor.

With such a scheme in existence for dealing with applications for relief from strangers on tramp whose cases it is impossible to investigate, the public are without excuse for either, on the one hand, refusing the application for relief of a stranger on tramp who may be, as he alleges, destitute, on the ground that they will not risk their charity being abused, or, on the other hand, encouraging vagrancy and imposture by relieving strangers on tramp in any other manner than by means of the society's relief tickets.

In proportion as the public use the system and refrain from dispensing relief in any other form to strangers on tramp, so will the society succeed in suppressing vagrancy; but there are far too many thoughtlessly benevolent, not beneficent, who will indulge in that spurious form of charity—indiscriminate almsgiving—for the society's system to be as completely successful as it otherwise would be.

The comparatively small number of the society's relief tickets negotiated during the past two years is due to the satisfactory condition of trade, which has been such that the secretary of the society has been able to acquaint the public that throughout the county people able and willing to work, whether skilled or unskilled, experience but little difficulty in obtaining employment.

With regard to the interrogatories 1 to 5 quoted in your letter, I do not think I can supply you with any information beyond what you have doubtless already obtained from the chief constable of Edinburg or other source, but I may mention the following:

Punishment in various forms has been tried for centuries without effect. If penal enactments alone would have sufficed, the professional vagrant would have disappeared long since; but such measures, though a necessary part of any system, have not had the desired effect, because the thoughtless benevolence of the public has fostered and encouraged the very evil which the legislature has sought to suppress.

The most important existing legislative provisions in Scotland for dealing with vagrancy are the following:

(1) The fourth section of act 5, George IV, cap. 83 (an English statute), the said fourth section of which was extended to Scotland in 1871 by the fifteenth section of the act 34 and 35 Vic., cap. 112.

The English act classifies vagrants and mendicants under the following heads: Idle and disorderly persons, rogues and vagabonds, and incorrigible rogues, and makes such persons liable to the following terms of imprisonment:

Idle and disorderly persons, one month.

Rogues and vagabonds, three months.

Incorrigible rogues may be sent to jail until the next quarter sessions, and then further imprisoned for twelve months.

But the fourth section of the act, which is the only section thereof extended to Scotland, contains only the provisions relating to the class described as rogues and vagabonds.

(2) Sections 331 to 334 of the general police and improvement (Scotland) act, 1862 (25 and 26 Vic., cap. 101). This statute is only in force in certain populous places and towns in Scotland, not in the rural districts; but the most serious of vagrancy offenses included in it are provided for fully as stringently under the rogue and vagabond clause referred to above, which is applicable generally throughout Scotland.

(3) The trespass (Scotland) act, which contains provisions for the punishment of persons found lodging in any premises, or occupying or encamping on land being private property, without permission of the owner or legal occupier of such premises or land.

(4) The pedlers acts, which regulate and provide for police supervision of hawkers, petty chapmen, traveling tinkers, etc.

(5) The prevention of cruelty and protection of children act, 1889 (52 and 53 Vic., cap. 44), which, *inter alia*, places restrictions on the employment of children and imposes penalties for using children for the purpose of begging or receiving alms, or of inducing the giving of alms, whether under the pretense of singing, playing, performing, offering anything for sale, or otherwise.

I have sent the annual reports of the Ayrshire Mendicity Society in a separate parcel by this post, and you will find the parts which appear to me most worthy of notice marked with red ink at margin. I inclose herewith: (1) A cutting from a printed report of mine, dated January, 1885, in which the suggestion is made for the formation of a county mendicity society; (2) a newspaper report of the public meeting held to consider the proposal for the formation of the Mendicity Society; (3) a print of the fourth section of act 5, George IV, cap. 83 (the vagrancy clause).

If there is any point that occurs to you upon which I can supply information of use in your inquiry I hope you will let me know.

I am, dear sir, yours very faithfully,

WARD MCHARDY,
Captain Royal Navy, Chief Constable of Ayrshire.

WALLACE BRUCE, Esq.

SECTION 4, ACT 5, GEORGE IV, CAP. 83, AS AMENDED AND EXTENDED TO SCOTLAND, BY "THE PREVENTION OF CRIMES ACT, 1871."

[Inclosure in Capt. McHardy's communication.]

And be it further enacted, That every person pretending or professing to tell fortunes, or using any subtle craft, means, or device, by palmistry or otherwise, to deceive and impose on any of His Majesty's subjects; every person wandering abroad and lodging in any barn or outhouse, or in any deserted or unoccupied building, or in the open air, or under a tent, or in any cart or wagon, not having any visible means of subsistence, and not giving a good account of himself or herself; every person wilfully exposing to view, in any street, road, highway, or public place, any obscene print, picture, or other indecent exhibition; every person wilfully, openly, lewdly, and obscenely exposing his person in any street, road, or public highway, or in view

thereof, or in any place of public resort, with intent to insult any female; every person wandering abroad and endeavoring by the exposure of wounds or deformities to obtain or gather alms; every person going about as a gatherer or collector of alms, or endeavoring to procure charitable contributions of any nature or kind, under any false or fraudulent pretense; every person running away and leaving his wife, or his or her child or children, chargeable, or whereby she or they or any of them shall become chargeable, to any parish, township, or place; every person playing or betting in any street, road, highway, or other open and public place, at or with any table or instrument of gaming, at any game or pretended game of chance; every person having in his or her custody or possession any picklock key, crow, jack, bit, or other implement, with intent feloniously to break into any dwelling house, warehouse, coach-house, stable, or outbuilding, or being armed with any gun, pistol, hanger, cutlass, bludgeon, or other offensive weapon, or having upon him or her any instrument with intent to commit any felonious* act; every person being found in or upon any dwelling house, warehouse, coach-house, stable, or outhouse, or in any inclosed yard, garden, or area, for any unlawful purpose; every suspected person or reputed thief, frequenting any river, canal, or navigable stream, dock, or basin, or any quay, wharf, or warehouse near or adjoining thereto, or any street, highway, or avenue leading thereto, or any street, highway,* or place adjacent, with intent to commit felony*, shall be deemed a rogue and vagabond, within the true intent and meaning of this act; and it shall be lawful for any justice† of the peace to commit such offender (being thereof convicted before him by the confession of such offender, or by the evidence on oath of one or more credible witness or witnesses), to the House of Correction, there to be kept to hard labor for any time not exceeding three calendar months; and every such picklock key, crow, jack, bit, and other implement, and every such gun, pistol, hanger, cutlass, bludgeon, or other offensive weapon, and every such instrument as aforesaid, shall, by the conviction of the offender, become forfeited to the King's Majesty.

GLASGOW.

REPORT BY CONSUL BROWN.

Fifty years ago begging or tramping was (shall I say) a recognized industry in Scotland. It is certain that a large number of people employed this means for obtaining a livelihood, and in many cases their reward was substantial. In those days every farm was provided with its "beggar's bed," sometimes in the house, sometimes in the barn, but, as a rule, clean and comfortable. This beggar's bed and room was set aside for the sole use of the tramp, and was frequently tenanted, and during some seasons of the year rarely without its tenant. I am informed that in some localities even now there is a beggar's room and bed provided at farm houses, but nowadays they are rarely occupied, for the tramp is no longer recognized as a necessary, much less useful or ornamental, member of society; but on the contrary is regarded as an entirely useless and uncalled-for member of society, and not only so, but an offender and criminal in the sight of the law, and this law, denominated an "act to suppress vagrancy," is so rigidly enforced that the "professional tramp" is no longer often met with

* See definition in prevention of crimes act, Sec. 15.

† See same act, Sec. 17 (1), as to jurisdiction.

Vagrancy still exists and perhaps always will, but the evils resulting have been greatly reduced, and by systematic but prudent and careful enforcement of the law and through other agencies, to be hereinafter referred to, the minimum of evil resulting appears to have been reached.

Since vagrancy has been put under the ban of the law and the tramp ostracized, tramping has been reduced, if possible, even more in the city than in the country, the ever vigilant police force making the unworthy beggar, the genuine tramp, feel that his profession is an extremely precarious one and fraught with many dangers, not the least of which is hard work for thirty or sixty days, and the, to him, scarcely less evil of a general scrubbing up and cleaning, neither of which processes appears to be to the tramp's liking, but quite to the contrary, and received under compulsion only and with extreme disgust. If the system of dealing with tramps proves so efficacious here, why not in the United States. where there is so little real necessity for begging?

Upon receipt of the Department circular upon the subject, I at once addressed the several inquiries to J. T. Strang, esq., secretary of the Charity Organization Society, Glasgow, as being the one man above all others who could give me an intelligent and comprehensive answer to the questions propounded, as far, at least, as the same applied to the city, and the report presented to me by Mr. Strang, abridged but not curtailed as to matters of fact, follows, the questions being answered in consecutive order:

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) That class of vagrants generally designated "tramps" is not so numerous in Glasgow (proportional to population) as in the country districts. The Glasgow police act makes it a punishable offense "to be found sleeping in public parks, gardens or streets, outhouses, sheds, barns, or about pits, brick or other works," and tramps so found are apprehended, and generally receive imprisonment for a period ranging from seven to twenty-one days for the first offense. In the case of children, they are handed over to the parochial authorities or an industrial school, if the parents or guardians can not be found. According to the criminal returns for the year ending December 31, 1891, a census of vagrants, beggars, migratory poor, etc., on tramp within the Glasgow police district, shows that there were found 559 on the night of June 21, 31 of these being children under 14 years of age, and 568 on the night of December 27, 16 of whom were children. In Scotland no "able-bodied" person can be legally assisted out of the funds received for the relief of the poor, and able-bodied vagrants can not, therefore, obtain assistance from the parochial boards of the city. This law has sometimes been evaded in country towns, where lodging has been given beggars or tramps arriving at night, but the board of supervision has declared "that a vagrant is not entitled to parochial relief merely because he is in want of a night's lodging."

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) There are numerous agencies in the city for the distribution of charity, such as societies for assisting aged men and women, foreigners, widows, persons afflicted with incurable diseases, the blind, deaf and dumb, and, besides these, there are county associations (a number of them) for helping distressed natives of said counties resident in Glasgow, and many others.

These charities are all managed by committees and deal with the applications according to their merits, upon information obtained on inquiry. Many of the charities make use of the Charity Organization Society for the purpose of investigation.

There is no uniform method for the distribution of alms. By some it is done weekly, by others monthly, quarterly, half-yearly, and even yearly. One of the charities gives no money, but tickets for coal or provisions, these tickets being given by missionaries, Bible women, and other workers among the poor who are supposed to know something about the necessities of those to whom tickets are given.

Another society provides dinners to poor children attending school, also clothing when necessary. A Day Nursery Society looks after little children while the mothers go out to work, etc.

These various agencies work separately and much overlapping naturally occurs. The Charity Organization Society has inaugurated a scheme of registration of charitable and parochial aid, designed to check this, and many societies have joined the scheme. The Charity Organization Society is what its name implies and has and is doing a most useful work in systematizing charitable relief.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

(3) The Glasgow police act deals with begging as follows, classifying beggars and tramps with housebreakers, etc.:

Every person who, in any turnpike road, street, court, or common stair, either asks alms or exposes wounds or deformity, or places himself or acts so as to induce, or for the purpose of inducing, the giving of alms, shall be deemed a beggar; any person who within the city is found wandering abroad, or lodging in any barn or outhouse, or any deserted or unoccupied building, or in the open air, or under a tent, or in a cart or wagon, shall be deemed a vagrant, unless he proves to the satisfaction of the magistrate that he has a fixed place of residence and some lawful means of gaining a livelihood within the city; and every person who, after having been convicted of vagrancy, or of housebreaking, or theft, is found in possession of any picklock, key, crow, jack, bit, or other implement usually employed in housebreaking, and every person who is found in any building or part of a building or other inclosed space for any unlawful purpose, or who, after having been convicted of housebreaking or theft, is found in any turnpike road, street, court, or common stair, with intent to commit any penal offense or police offense, or in possession of any article without being able to give a satisfactory account of his possession thereof, shall be deemed a rogue and vagabond.

If such person is apparently a fit subject for parochial relief the magistrate may direct him to be handed over to the inspector of the poor or other official of the parish within which he was found, in order that his claim for relief may be investigated

and disposed of according to law, or may cause him to be detained in custody, or permit him to reside in some place of reception provided for the purpose, until such claim is investigated and disposed of. If such person is not apparently a fit subject for parochial relief, the magistrate may convict him of begging or of vagrancy and may for the first offense sentence him to imprisonment for a period not exceeding fourteen days, and for a second or any subsequent offense to imprisonment for a period not exceeding thirty days, and may declare forfeited any money or article found on his person. The magistrate may at any time during the pendency of the case before him cause such person and his clothes to be washed and cleaned. And he may sentence any rogue and vagabond for the first offense to imprisonment for a period not exceeding thirty days, and for a second or subsequent offense to imprisonment for a period not exceeding sixty days, and may declare forfeited any money or article found on his person. Every parent, and every person, who has control of any young person apparently under the age of 14 years, or with whom such young person resides, and who sends him out to beg, or suffers him to act as a beggar or vagrant, shall be liable to imprisonment for a period not exceeding thirty days.

During the year ending December 31 last, 279 persons were apprehended for begging, 254 of whom were convicted.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

(4) In the year 1874 the Glasgow Charity Organization Society was established for the purpose of "organizing charity and repressing mendicity." The society supplies the benevolent public with investigation tickets, and requests that no money be given beggars, but that tickets be handed them, directing them to the office of the society, when, if found deserving, they are suitably dealt with.

As far as possible temporary work is offered "able-bodied" men, but in many cases work is just what they do not want, and they leave at once and usually make themselves scarce. A project is on foot to extend labor centers throughout the city, where work may be provided for all who apply. If this project can be successfully launched, and it is believed it can be, the really deserving will always find needed relief and the unworthy can be dealt with as they deserve under the law. Other agencies are already at work with the view of making "beggars and tramps" self-supporting members of society, such as the Prison Aid Society, Prison Gate Mission and House of Shelter for Females, The United Evangelistic Association, etc.

No doubt there has been a great decrease in the number of mendicants within the last twenty years, and people who use the investigation tickets of the above-named society affirm that fewer beggars apply to them, while doubtless the relief of the really worthy has been greatly extended. Mr. Strang aptly says, "Any efforts to convert beggars into useful members of society must be greatly frustrated so long as the public continues to give alms indiscriminately."

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

(5) The indiscriminate dispensation of both public and private charities is productive of little good and much mischief. It encourages indolence, intemperance, thriftlessness, and vice, while it also takes away the *applicant's spirit*, however little it may be, of independence, by

directly teaching dependence upon others, rather than self-reliance and self-helpfulness, and thereby conduces to that worst of all conditions, helplessness.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEM.

(6) A diversity of opinion will doubtless always exist in the minds of the public, but in the practical application of a system, such as the Organization Society aims to accomplish, has certainly been productive of much good, both to the deserving poor and the charitably inclined public, and it is quite evident to my mind that only by intercommunication among various agencies, in short, "organization," can the most effective and useful work be done.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

(7) Marriage between paupers seldom, if ever, takes place here. As already stated, no "able-bodied" person in Scotland is legally entitled to parochial relief, this relief being furnished to the aged, the infirm, and widows with young children. In the event of a widow again marrying she is struck off the roll, her husband being considered able to provide for her, and should two paupers marry, both are cut off the outdoor roll, and are only offered the poorhouse on the ground of being unable to support themselves.

There is no law to prohibit early and improvident marriages, and it is believed by the best informed that such a law would tend to increase illegitimacy. At the outset I incidentally mentioned an agency for the suppression of vagrancy, to which I now desire to call especial attention. The individual society, being one of many similar societies established throughout the Kingdom, is the "Ayrshire Mendicity Society for the repression of professional vagrancy and the supply of relief to the destitute wayfarers."

The society has been in operation six years, and deals with the "tramp" question as applied to the county at large. The results of the society's operations have been almost remarkable in the way of suppression of the tramp nuisance and the crimes perpetrated by them as well. I am informed, however, that in this respect their success is not phenomenal by any means, but that in every county where a similar society has been organized marked success has followed its establishment. I am not by any means certain that the system in its entirety could be adopted in all or even in an approximately large number of counties in the United States, on account of the population being less dense and not closely under police supervision, but I am satisfied that a modification of the plan of the Ayrshire society might be successfully operated in a great majority of our counties, and thereby the really deserving greatly benefited and the "professional" kind largely curtailed.

This is the more marked, perhaps, on account of the fact that at one *time* Ayrshire, being one of the richest counties in Scotland, under

and with the old system prevailing, was cursed with a larger number of undeserving beggars than any other county in the country. So successful has been the work of the society, and so important the idea involved, that it seems quite out of the question to abridge the report, which shows the design and practical working of the society, and I therefore inclose the report, suggesting that if this, my report, is published, there should be published, as an inclosure accompanying the same, at least so much as relates to the system, which is to be found on pages 4 and 5; the rules, on pages 6 and 7, and the proceedings of the annual meeting, together with the report made at the meeting.*

LEVI W. BROWN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Glasgow, April 25, 1892.

WALES.

REPORT BY CONSUL HOWARD, OF CARDIFF.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

(1) Formerly the tramp applied to a relieving officer appointed by the board of guardians. Subsequently that method gave place to one requiring the tramp to apply to the police station, but the police complained that it placed unnecessary and burdensome duties upon them, and accordingly they were relieved of that work and the tramp now applies to the master of the union workhouse. If the master admit the applicant, he is placed in a cell, by himself, which is provided with a plank bed. The bed is simply a wooden bench 2 or 3 feet from the ground, higher at the head than at the foot, and furnished with one or two blankets. The cell is also provided with a certain number of pounds of rock, and a sledge hammer. Before the tramp can leave the cell the next morning he must have broken the rock into sufficiently small fragments to pass through a grating in the cell, supplied for that purpose, opening into the yard. This grating is about 12 by 18 inches, and the meshes are about 2 inches square. When the occupant of the cell has passed all the rock through these meshes into the yard, he is given his liberty. The tramp is thus provided with his supper, lodging, and breakfast, at the expense of several hours hard work. As he was compelled to do this work before his discharge, it usually happened he had not accomplished his task so as to gain his liberty until it was thought too late in the day for him to obtain work outside; therefore the rule was modified so that by breaking a larger quantity of rock he might have two nights lodging and be discharged early in the morning. But

* See supplementary report of Consul Bruce, pp. 453–458.

the number of tramps has been so great that it has not been practicable to put this second method into operation.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

(2) Several parishes are united together into unions under the control of a board of guardians. The Cardiff union includes 45 parishes, and contained in 1891 a population of about 150,000, and had a rateable value of £1,183,161. The board of guardians consists of 41 ex-officio guardians, and 65 elected members. The officers are chairman, vice-chairman, clerk, assessment committee, master of the workhouse, matron of the workhouse, workhouse medical officers, district medical officers, master of the schools, mistress of the schools, relieving officers, vaccination officers, registrar of births, marriages, and deaths, rate collectors, etc.

The union maintains a large and exceedingly well-conducted workhouse in the town, and schools at Ely, a short distance away. The average number of inmates, workhouse and schools, in 1889, was 924, of which number between 200 and 300 were children in the schools; the average weekly cost, indoors, per head of the workhouse was 4*s.* 4*d.*; and the cost of the schools, four shillings and sixpence.

The schools take the children from 4 to 14 years of age, and the children receive a good primary education. The girls are taught hand and machine sewing, knitting, and general house-work. The boys are taught shoemaking, tailoring, and general gardening, and perhaps other trades. The children are well-clothed, and well fed, and given time and place for play and exercise.

The inmates of the workhouse consist of that unfortunate class of people the world over, who are unable from one cause or another to maintain themselves and present no special peculiarities. Certain cottages in one part of the workhouse grounds are set apart for old married couples, in response to that sentiment which shrinks from separating a man and his wife in their old age, whom poverty has driven to the workhouse.

Outdoor relief is discouraged; yet, in certain cases where deserving poor, not chronic paupers, are able to support themselves with a little assistance, it is given after careful examination. One of the officers appointed by the board of guardians is the relieving officer, whose duty it is to investigate and report upon the application for relief. If the application be not urgent, the applicant is requested to attend before the board of guardians, who also investigate the case and decide whether he shall receive outdoor relief, which consists of a small allowance per week, or be ordered to the workhouse. If, on the other hand, the case be urgent, the medical officer to the workhouse examines the applicant and reports what is necessary in his case, which is supplied by a note from the relieving officer to the stores. When a man is too poor to obtain a doctor, he can make application to the relieving

officer, who will give him a ticket to obtain medicine from the union doctor. (It is to be observed that the work "workhouse," as used here, has not connected with it any idea of criminality, as the word is sometimes used.)

SUPPRESSION AND REFORMATION.

(3) Vagrancy and begging are punishable under very stringent general law, applicable to the whole kingdom.

(4) The disciplinary effect of breaking 1,300 pounds of rock is the only well directed effort known to accomplish the purpose of directing and inciting tramps to be self-supporting. It should be mentioned, however, in this connection, that very gratifying success has been met with in the schools maintained by the union in rescuing children from hereditary pauperism. Mr. Harris, the master of the Ely schools, gave an instance coming within his own observation, where the parish records and the records of the workhouse showed an unbroken chain of 300 years' inherited pauperism; that inherited tendency had been changed by the children of this generation, under the fostering care of the schools, becoming self-supporting, respectable citizens, and taking their parents from the workhouse to their own homes and under their own care and support; and thus, as Mr. Harris expressed it, "breaking the neck of pauperism." And it is believed that if not the only, certainly the best, method of changing the heredity of pauperism and disease is through the children.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEMS.

(5) There are several societies in Cardiff and district inaugurated with the object of assisting people in case of sickness and death. The members contribute from 2 shillings and sixpence to 5 shillings per month and they receive in case of illness from 8 to 16 shillings per week on a graduated scale for the first six months. In the event of death, the widows receive from £10 to £15, according to the amount of subscriptions paid per month. There is also as a rule a widows' and orphans' fund in connection with these societies, which, of course, requires an extra subscription by the member, but which upon his death entitles his widow to 5 shillings per week for life and children to 2 shillings per week each until they attain the age of 14 years. There is, moreover, a society for miners named the South Wales and Monmouthshire Miners' Provident Association. This association is maintained by the workmen and the owners of the collieries; the latter contribute one-fourth of the amount the former contribute, and the association has now a capital of £4,000, which is invested with Lord Tredegar, Lord Bute, and several other leading noblemen. A certain sum in the pound is deducted every week from the men's earnings by the proper officers of the association at the different colliery offices, and the workmen are relieved in sickness, accident, and death. At her husband's death the widow is entitled to £8 toward burial expenses and a sum not less than 5 shillings per week for life. The widow, however, has

the option of entering into a contract with the association with a view to receiving down a lump sum in discharge of all claims. When a man is permanently incapacitated for work by accident or otherwise, he receives 10 shillings per week; if he is not entirely incapacitated and can do something toward making a livelihood in the way of keeping a small business, the committee of the association often decide to give him £30 or £40 down, which will enable him to start some little concern as indicated.

Nearly every church and social organization has some method for relieving its necessitous members. This is usually done in connection with social societies by a regular contribution on the part of the members, thus freeing from any loss of self-respect when it comes to a case of relief on their part.

A subject that is being discussed very much at the present time, both upon the platform and in the press, is the question of old-age pensions, which, in its plan, contemplates a semigovernment insurance analogous to that system of governmental insurance now operating in Germany. As showing the drift of sentiment upon that subject, the recent report of the Parliamentary committee is appended.

WALTER E. HOWARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cardiff, May 25, 1892.

OLD-AGE PENSIONS.

(Included in Consul Howard's report.)

The following is the old-age pension scheme as formally adopted by the parliamentary committee on Tuesday last.

I.—Establishment of fund.

A state pension fund to be established, to which Parliament should be asked to make an annual grant, to be supplemented by contributions from local rates.

II.—Persons insured in friendly societies, or elsewhere than in the post-office.

(*a*) Every male who, before he is 25 years of age, shall deposit £1 10*s*. in the post-office savings bank, and shall prove that he is insured in a friendly society or elsewhere for a pension of not less than £6 10*s*., shall, on reaching 65, and on showing that such pension will be paid to him, be entitled to an additional pension of £6 [illegible] per annum.

(*b*) Females same as above, but deposit £1 5*s*.; insured elsewhere, £3 18*s*.; additional pension, £3 18*s*.

NOTE.—The credits from the state would be approximately the same as though they had insured intirely with the state pension fund, on the nonreturnable scale.

III.—Insurance in the post-office for males—Money not returnable.

(*a*) Every male who, for the purchase of a pension under this head, shall deposit £2 10*s*. in the post-office savings bank before he is 25 years of age shall thereupon be credited with a further sum of £10 from the state pension fund, and thereafter [illegible]

40 years he shall pay 10*s*. per annum to the post-office savings bank. On these 40 annual sums being duly paid, and on his reaching 65 years of age, he shall be entitled to a pension of £13 per annum.

(*b*) Every male under 25 years of age may insure under this head for a pension larger than £13. For each £1 over and above £2 10*s*. deposited before age 25 his pension will be increased by 11*s*. 8*d*. per annum, and for each 5*s*. over and above 10*s*. paid annually between 25 and 65 years of age, his pension will be increased by £2 16*s*. 10*d*. per annum.

IV.—Insurance in the post-office for males—Money returnable.

(*a*) Every male who, for the purchase of a pension under this head, shall pay £5 to the post-office savings bank before he is 25 years of age shall thereupon be credited with a further sum of £15 from the state pension fund, and thereafter for 40 years he shall pay £1 per annum to the post-office savings bank. On these 40 annual sums being duly paid, and on his reaching 65 years of age, he shall be entitled to a pension of £13 per annum.

(*b*) If the insured person die before the third annual sum of £1 is due and paid, the sum of £5 which he deposited shall be returned to his widow or other authorized representative.

(*c*) If the insured person die after the third annual sum of £1 is due and paid, before the age of 65, leaving a widow and young children, or children without a widow, the widow (if any) shall receive 5*s*. per week for 26 weeks, and there shall be paid for each child under 12 years of age (if any) 2*s*. per week until he or she reaches the age of 12 years, but so that the total sum paid to one family shall never exceed 12*s*. per week during the first 26 weeks or 8*s*. per week thereafter.

(*d*) If the insured person die after the third annual sum of £1 is due and paid, before the age of 65, leaving a widow without children, there shall be paid to the widow 5*s*. per week for 26 weeks, and such sum in addition as will together amount to the total of his subscriptions, with interest at 2½ per cent.

(*e*) If the insured person die after the third annual sum of £1 is due and paid, and before he reaches 65, leaving neither widow nor children, there shall be paid to his duly appointed representative the sum of £5.

(*f*) Every male under 25 years of age may insure under this head for a pension larger than £13. For each £1 over and above £5 deposited before age 25 his pension will be increased by 5*s*. 4*d*. per annum, and for each 10*s*. over and above £1, paid annually, between 25 and 65 years of age, his pension will be increased by £3 6*s*. 8*d*. per annum. In the event of his death before age 65 the amount of the additional deposits or annual sums thus paid, with interest at 2½ per cent, will be returned to his widow or authorized representative, in addition to the amount to which they would otherwise be entitled.

The returns to be made under *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, and *f* are subject to VII—Arrears.

V.—Insurance in the post-office for females—Money not returnable.

(*a*) Every female who, for the purchase of a pension under this head, shall deposit £1 10*s*. in the post-office savings bank before she is 25 years of age shall thereupon be credited with a further sum of £8 from the state pension fund, and thereafter for 40 years she shall pay 8*s*. 8*d*. per annum to the post office savings bank. On these 40 annual sums being duly paid, and on her reaching 65 years of age, she shall be entitled to a pension of £7 16*s*. per annum.

(*b*) Every female under 25 years of age may insure under this head for a pension larger than £7 16*s*. For each £1 over and above £1 10*s*. deposited before age 25 her pension will be increased by 8*s*. 4*d*. per annum, and for each 4*s*. 4*d*. over and above 8*s*. 8*d*. paid annually between 25 and 65 years of age her pension will be increased by £1 18*s*. 3*d*. per annum.

VI.—Insurance in the post-office—Payment by lump sums.

If the insured person prefer, he or she may, instead of annual contributions in Clauses III, IV, and V, make a payment in one or more lump sums at any time, equivalent to the value of such annual contributions, and thus entitle himself or herself to the benefits of this scheme, under the aforesaid clauses, respectively.

VII.—Insurance in the post-office—Arrears of contributions.

If the annual contribution of an insurer is not duly paid, interest at 5 per cent per annum shall be charged thereon. An insurer may pay up his back contributions with interest at 5 per cent per annum at any time within two years of their falling into arrear. But if an insurer, after paying three annual installments, falls into arrears for more than two years and remains in arrear at the time of his death, or until he reaches the age of 65, the following provisions shall apply:

(*a*) In the case of death before 65, there shall be paid to his widow, if any, 5*s*. per week for 26 weeks, and such sum in addition as may be necessary to make up the total amount of the insurer's own subscriptions without interest. If he leaves children only, the same amount shall be paid to his representative for their benefit.

(*b*) If he reaches the age of 65 the amount of his subscriptions shall be returned to him without interest.

VIII.—Insurance in the post-office—Provision for pensioners dying before the age of 65.

If a pensioner, after reaching the age of 65, should die before enjoying the pension for more than three years, the sum of £10 shall be payable to his widow, if any.

IX.—Persons over 25 at passing of the act.

(*a*) Every male who, at the passage of the act, is above the age of 25 years, and who, within three years of the passing of the act, being then under 50 years of age, shall deposit in the post-office savings bank: £4 if he is under 30 years of age, £5 if he is under 35 years of age, £6 if he is under 40 years of age, £8 if he is under 45 years of age, £10 if he is under 50 years of age, and shall prove that he is insured in the post-office or elsewhere for a pension of not less than £6 10*s*. per annum, shall, on reaching 65, and on showing that such pension will be paid to him, be entitled to an additional pension of £6 10*s*. per annum.

(*b*) Females same as males, but £3 if under 30 years of age, £4 if under 35 years of age, £5 if under 40 years of age, £6 if under 45 years of age, £7 10*s*. if under 50 years of age, and insured elsewhere, £3 18*s*.; additional pension, £3 18*s*.

X.—No power of assignment.

No person shall have power to assign or alienate his pension, and such pension, up to 5*s*. a week, shall be protected from all process for debt.

SWANSEA.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT HOLTON.

In this borrough tramps go about undisturbed so long as they br[illegible] no law. If they apply to the police authorities for relief they are gi[illegible] a ticket which admits them to the workhouse, technically called [illegible] union, and essentially the same as an American poorhouse. They [illegible] only kept there one night and are compelled to break stone or do s[illegible] other work before breakfast, after which they are discharged and [illegible]

› seek employment. Whether they obtain work or not, they can not ɔt lodging in the union the next night. If they are found "sleeping ıt," they are arrested and taken before the police magistrate. On a rst offense they are usually reprimanded, and on a second sent to ıe county prison for five or seven days—sometimes to the union for a eek. There is little in their treatment at the union to their liking, ıd they much prefer being sent to the prison. If they do not obtain nployment here, they are expected to go elsewhere. They are relieved ılly in the workhouse.

Begging is prohibited, and a person so found is punished by imprisıment three or more days, according to the number of the offense. arents of children found begging are examined to ascertain if it is one with their consent or by their direction. If so, the parents are unished.

The following rules, prescribed in 1876 and still practiced by the uardians of the Swansea Union, will be found instructive:

RULES FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF OUTDOOR RELIEF.

That all outdoor relief to able-bodied men in cases of temporary sickness of self r family be given by way of loan.

That the practice of passing relief through the hands of strangers and children be iscouraged as far as possible, and that paupers, when able to do so, should as a rule e required to attend at the pay stations to receive their relief themselves.

That outdoor relief be regarded as an indulgence, to be given to those only whose estitution has arisen from no fault of their own.

That no relief, except in the workhouse, be given in any new cases of the fallowıg nature:

(1) Persons whose destitution is the result of improvidence or intemperance.
(2) Persons not resident within the Union.
(3) Deserted wife (during first year of desertion).
(4) Wives and families of convicted prisoners.
(5) Wives and families of soldiers, sailors, or militiamen on duty.
(6) Able-bodied widows with one child, two years old.
(7) Single women with illegitimate children.
(8) Persons having relatives who, in the opinion of the guardians, are capable of maintaining them.
(9) Persons living in premises reported by the medical officer of health to be unfit or occupation, either from overcrowding or from being kept in a filthy condition.

That the foregoing rules be not altered or departed from by any relief committee ithout the express consent of the board of guardians.

The guardians are desirous of impressing upon all classes the necessity of joining a iendly society or making some other provision for themselves in old age and sickıss; and that those who have not should for the future clearly understand that, if estitute, they will be relieved in the workhouse and the workhouse only.

By order:

G. B. HAYNES,
Clerk.

SWANSEA, *December 14, 1876.*

The police authorities here have taken advantage of the law which allows them to issue peddlers' licenses to beggars of mature age who have never been convicted of theft or other crime. This license is for twelve months and is good anywhere in the United Kingdom. The license costs 5 shillings. Charitable people frequently furnish the money to procure it, together with a small stock of shoe laces, buttons, etc., and start an unfortunate one on the road to self-support. Efforts of this kind to convert beggars and those about to become such to self-supporting members of society are favored by the authorities, who think they have resulted in much good.

Paupers relieved in the workhouse are called indoor and those relieved at their homes are termed outdoor paupers. About three-fifths of the total receive a weekly allowance at their homes. Since the enactment of the poor law of 1836 there has been no indiscriminate dispensation of public charities.

The Cottage Homes for pauper children is an admirable institution. The inmates are given a rudimentary education and taught to work. They are kept in the homes until 14 years of age, when they are "placed out." Because of their good character and efficiency they are much sought after. It is claimed that their training at the homes and their anticipation of the time when they will go to service outside thoroughly prevent their becoming chronic beggars.

CHARLES M. HOLTON,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Swansea, July 16, 1892.

GIBRALTAR.

REPORT BY CONSUL SPRAGUE.

There are no such characters or class known as "tramps," such being inadmissible in this town and garrison.

Charities are supported by voluntary subscriptions, chiefly by funds arising from properties which have been devised by deceased parties from time to time, and which are placed under the control of a committee composed of one Government member and the rest leading inhabitants of Gibraltar.

There are also Little Sisters of Charity for the poor, who keep a home for the aged.

They possess no funds or property whatsoever, but are entirely dependent upon the charity of the public, begging daily from door to door and accepting whatever is offered to them, whether in money, food, or clothes.

out eighty aged poor are ending their days in peace, owing to comforts.

› distribution of alms to destitute members of the Roman Catholic unity takes place every Saturday, at the Church of St. Mary the ned. The principal business firms here also distribute on Fridays laturdays without distinction of creed.

gging is not permitted here; any person soliciting alms in public ›le to punishment on being brought before the police magistrate.

› present system of indiscriminate distribution of alms is consid- the best means for removing those religous distinctions which are lated to perpetuate sectarian differences.

HORATIO L. SPRAGUE,
Consul.

ITED STATES CONSULATE,
Gibraltar, March 21, 1892.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

DOMINION OF CANADA.

AMHERSTBURG.

REPORT BY CONSUL HINE.

(1) Tramps are usually given a night's lodging in the local jail and ordered to leave town the next morning.

(2) The worthy poor and destitute of the town are assisted and in certain cases maintained by the town, through the agency of its municipal council.

(3, 4) No organized effort is made for the punishment or suppression of begging or for the conversion of beggars to self-supporting members of society.

(5, 6) No systematic plan is here pursued for the dispensation of public or private charies, except as stated in reply to No. 2.

(7) No local legislation or regulation regarding intermarriage of paupers.

JAMES W. HINE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amherstburg, March 2, 1892.

BELLEVILLE.

REPORT BY CONSUL DENEEN.

(1) Belleville, the county seat of Hastings County, Ontario, has a population of 9,914. Tramps and persons without visible means of support are arrested and ordered to leave the city. If they do not obey they are sent to jail and put at hard labor. The term of their confinement is fixed by the police magistrate.

(2) The city council grants the sum of $1,500 a year to the Women's Christian Association, which appoints committees for the several wards of the city. These committees investigate the condition of those applying for aid and render assistance when they deem it necessary.

(3, 5, 7) The answers to these questions, so far as any can be given, will doubtless be found in the report of the consul-general at Ottawa, Ontario.

) Formerly the city council appointed every year a "poor and :y committee," whose duty it was to attend to the cases of those ng for pecuniary assistance. This committee was abolished be- .t was found that the Woman's Christian Association rendered o the poor more carefully, judiciously, and economically. It has ıatic inspections of all parts of the city; it bestows no aid without ıation; it seeks to find employment for those able to work; it 'ors to revive the feeling of self-respect and establish the power -support among those asking for relief; it adds to its charities ersonal sympathy which is so beneficent an influence in dealing he unfortunate.

association has also the care of the Belleville Hospital, in which ses were treated last year. Its expenditures for this purpose $4,253.05. This sum was derived from provincial, county, and ants, from charges for treatment (when patients were able to nd from individual donations.

S. H. DENEEN,
Consul.

TED STATES CONSULATE,
Belleville, March 5, 1892.

BRADFORD.

REPORT BY CONSUL HOLLOWAY.

'ersons having no stated employment and no settled place of resi- are usually designated tramps or vagrants. They are arrested ven the option of leaving the city or imprisonment for a stated

The city council appoints a health and relief committee from its members, and any worthy person recommended by a rate- can receive public charity in the shape of meals, fuel, or admis- the hospital if sick.

'ersons caught begging are arrested and treated as tramps or ıts.

Discrimination is used in the dispensation of public charities, and 'ects are good, specially among the deserving poor of the city. are no private charities except from individual persons, and these no knowledge of.

'he health and relief committee of the city council has proved st means of distributing charity.

W. J. HOLLOWAY,
Consul.

. CONSULATE,
Bradford, April 5, 1892.

GUELPH.

REPORT BY CONSUL HUNT.

The condition of the poorer classes here, the steps taken by the local authorities to improve it and of controlling and abating the tramp nuisance, do not warrant the hope that those measures, as herein set out, will tend to offer much in the way of a solution of the important question submitted. It is not intended to be understood by this that the general condition of the poor in this city is worse than in the average of American cities of the same size, but rather that the policy seems to be to dispose of them and of the whole question with as little trouble and expense as possible, treating the class as a necessary evil, without considering practical remedies therefor. No attempt, so far as can be learned, has been or is being made looking to the permanent elevation of the class referred to. The only policy adopted here in relation to tramps seems to be the one most favored in the neighboring towns and cities, *i. e.*, feed them once or twice and, perhaps, lodge them at the police station, in the cells, then ticket them on to another place. Alms are distributed by the health officer, acting in the capacity of relief officer also, and known as such, who has the power vested in him to provide food and fuel for the relief of those in distress. There are local laws prohibiting begging and having in view the suppression thereof and punishment of those engaged in the practice, but no efforts seem to be made to enforce them so far as mendicants are concerned. The relief officer recently remarked in reply to the fourth question, in relation to the efforts made to convert beggars and tramps, that "everything is done that is possible to make them support themselves," but there are few signs that any systematic attempt whatever worthy of mention is being made in that direction. There is no city institution in the nature of a poorhouse where this class may be brought together, taught and trained, or otherwise reached in a body; there is, however, a county house, but the placing of the city poor therein, at the expense of the city, is discouraged and done only at very rare intervals and under peculiar circumstances, the reason being that the city pays no taxes to the county, and therefore has no privileges in the county institution; an inmate there from the city would be a city charge. In view of these facts it not too much to say that the relief officer should have replied to the question that no steps of any practical value are being taken to make the pauper element self-supporting or to elevate them in any way.

It is generally insisted here that the effect of the indiscriminate distribution of charities is bad. Money relief is seldom, if ever, granted, the relief officer furnishing orders instead, after having made himself thoroughly acquainted with the necessities of each case. Inquiry is usually made of the ministers and members of the congregations of the churches at which the applicants attend. As to efforts to prevent

intermarriage, it is doubtful if the question ever received the serious consideration of anyone here; certainly there are no visible results of such efforts if they have ever been so made.

The only local legislation bearing upon these subjects is contained in by-law No. 148, section 48, which reads as follows, to-wit:

Every vagrant, mendicant or person found drunk or disorderly in any street, highway or public place within the limits of said city of Guelph, shall incur the penalties mentioned in section 170 of this by-law ($1 to $50 fine by the police magistrate, and the costs, and in default imprisonment not exceeding 30 days in the county jail), and it shall be the duty of the chief constable and other constables of the city of Guelph to arrest every offender against this section of this by-law, and to bring every party so arrested before the proper authority to be dealt with according to law, detaining such party in safe custody in the meantime.

LOTON S. HUNT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Guelph, March 9, 1892.

LINDSAY.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT DILL.

Lindsay being the most important town within the limits of the consular district, the inquiries were confined entirely to this place.

(1) It is the custom in dealing with "tramps" to commit them to jail for from thirty days to six months. During incarceration they are kept at labor, which has had a salutary effect, and to a great extent freed the town from that undesirable fraternity.

(2) A central charity committee, composed of members of the several churches, looks after those needing assistance, the funds for carrying on this work being appropriated by the town council and raised by private subscription. This method is found to be far preferable to direct municipal charity. Those asking aid are visited and their circumstances and needs are made known from personal investigation.

(3) The police have instructions to arrest any persons who may be apprehended in soliciting alms publicly.

(4) Moral suasion is the chief method used to convert beggars and "tramps" to self-supporting members of society; for those who are willing to work employment is obtained.

(5, 6) The systematic dispensation of charity through the central committee has worked better than any other method. It is the most effective, tending to elevate the recipient and in every way satisfactory.

(7) No special efforts have been made to restrain intermarriage of paupers.

HARRY P. DILL,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Lindsay, April 8, 1892.

COATICOOK.

REPORT BY CONSUL STREET.

There is no special act for the control or regulation of tramps. They are not molested unless found violating the general laws.

The local authorities are not compelled by law to provide for the poor, but assistance is generally rendered in cases of extreme poverty and suffering, which often occurs during the winter season. Many of the rural municipalities, however, have undertaken to provide for their poor by establishing what are termed poor-farms, where the pauper class are provided with a comfortable home if they choose to accept it, otherwise no particular methods are employed for the distribution of alms, while begging from door to door, and upon the public streets in the good old-fashioned way, is permitted without restraint.

No special efforts have been made in this locality for the conversion of beggars and tramps into self-supporting members of society. It should be noted, however, that the class known as tramps are not as numerous here as farther south, owing probably to the severity of the Canadian winter, which renders their vocation both uncomfortable and unprofitable.

The opinion prevails here, which is evidently borne out by experience, that the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities encourages indolence and begging, owing, I think, to the presence here of large numbers of that class, usually found in European countries, who possess an instinctive inclination to beg rather than labor for a living.

In answer to the question, "What has proved to be the best system of distribution of public and private charities, looking to the elevation of the recipients," etc., I am unable to furnish any example which would assist in solving this great problem.

No efforts are made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers, except among those who are inmates of charitable institutions, as marriage among paupers is not permitted while under the immediate control, and dependant upon the local authorities for support.

ALFRED W. STREET,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Coaticook, March 24, 1892.

GASPE BASIN.

REPORT BY CONSUL DICKSON.

(1) Tramps can be sent to county jail as vagrants without home or occupation.

(2) In case of necessity the provincial government has distributed seed grain, etc. Special government grant is made yearly to Indians of seed grain and medical attendance when sick.

(3) No efforts are being made for the punishment or suppression of begging; a beggar appears at your door about every other day.

(4) No efforts are being made to convert beggars and tramps to self-supporting members of society.

(5) The effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities are to create a lazy, shiftless, and dangerous class in the community.

(6) There is no system of distribution of public or private charities. Legally, there is no provision for the poor in this consular district, except that provided by the different churches. Under the vagrant act, those destitute and homeless can be sent to the county jail, and the township sending them is obliged to pay 15 cents per day for their support.

(7) Some legislation on this matter is wanted to prevent the growth of a class of people dangerous to the public interest.

ALMAR F. DICKSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE.
Gaspe Basin, Quebec, March 9, 1892.

HAMILTON.

REPORT OF CONSUL MONAGHAN.

(1) There are no special regulations for tramps more than any other class. Any one found stealing a ride on a railroad train is prosecuted, fined, or imprisoned thirty days. If caught begging they are arrested, charged with vagrancy, and imprisoned.

(2) Alms are distributed to local or city residents only, and in exceptional cases to strangers, where sickness and unavoidable distress is apparent. Almost every nationality is represented by a charitable society, and all are, to some extent, associated in their work. Representatives of nearly all the associations meet frequently and compare lists, and by that means guard against the "professional impostor." Munici-

pal charity, limited to $5,000 per annum, acts with associated charities, and together render prompt aid to the needy and destitute, with but little reference to creed, or color, or nationality, which is highly commendable.

(3) The police have instructions to arrest beggars of every description and character, but, from personal daily experience with those claiming to hail from America, I can say the professional plies his trade, notwithstanding the watchful care of the officers.

(4) The Salvation Army and ladies' aid societies "beg off" mild criminals of the tramp order from magistrates, and take them to what is known as "prison gate" institutions under the care and control of the Salvation Army.

In these "prison gate" homes such persons are submitted to about a month's moral and religious training, and where a tendency and a desire for reformation is apparent they are sent to other towns, and thereby separate them from former evil associations. A strict surveillance is maintained over them by the Salvation Army officers of the new location until such time as they are pronounced cured or reformed, or otherwise.

In this respect the much-abused Salvation Army has done wonders here and elsewhere in Canada. The good accomplished is made manifest by the fact that the transitory jail population has been reduced to about one-third what it was previous to the efforts thus put forth by the "Army" and aid societies before mentioned began to show practical results.

The chief object of the workers in this field is to restore to the criminal class a spirit of manhood and womanhood, and thereby induce them to become self-reliant and once more self-respecting and, possibly, useful members of the community.

(5) Indiscriminate dispensation of charity has the effect of pauperizing the recipients and increasing beggary, which possibly becomes hereditary in the case of children trained in alms-seeking. Children should not be encouraged to follow in the footsteps of parents who are frequently content to eke out a bare existence by such means rather than secure it by honest toil.

The custom which maintains among the charitable societies in this city is to send children home without aid. The exceptional cases are where the parent or parents are sick and the child is the only messenger at their command.

(6) The system adopted in this city, and it meets with general approval, is to have the municipal relief officer call in person and make a thorough investigation of every new case. By this means he acquaints himself with the surroundings and record of the applicant, and when the conditions demand it he grants immediate aid in the direction most pressing, and does what he can to assist in securing employment whereby the applicant becomes self-supporting. In the case of sick-

ness preventing labor he continues to render assistance until restored to health, rigid economy being observed in the supply of fuel, and only such food as is wholesome and substantial is supplied to the needy who are in good health.

WM. MONAGHAN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hamilton, Ontario, March 22, 1892.

KINGSTON.

REPORT BY CONSUL TWITCHELL.

The class of vagrants usually styled "tramps" is generally composed of very different characters, who can not justly be treated indiscriminately alike. Some attempt is, therefore, made to inquire into their circumstances and characters, and treat them in the way that seems best for each particular case. Those who from misfortune, ill-health, or unavoidable want of work have drifted into this class without being what could be called vicious, are temporarily taken care of in the "house of industry," a sort of poorhouse, where they are sheltered until they can find employment; if disabled from active labor, are kept permanently, if that is found expedient. While there, those able to work are expected to make themselves useful about the house, woodyard, or shed for stone breaking, and usually comply with this regulation. If found disorderly, drunkards, or incurably vicious, they are generally sent to jail for a time, whence they either drift away to other places, or in some cases are taken hold of on coming out by the Salvation Army Prison-gate Home, the most effectual agency we have had for reforming this class.

The different ecclesiastical bodies distribute alms, as needed, to those poor whom they consider closely enough identified with them to be their special charge. For the large class who do not attend church regularly and are not considered beneficiaries of any particular church, provision is made by voluntary societies composed of ladies of different denominations for the relief of the poor. One of these societies, more particularly designated the "Kingston Poor Relief Society," gives out relief regularly during the winter, after inquiry made, to the following classes: (1) Aged and infirm persons and widows with young families to support, or deserted wives in the same position; (2) Families of workingmen who from sickness are unable for the time to support their families; (3) Families of workingmen out of work, especially newly arrived emigrants when there is no other means of relieving them. The relief given is in fuel or food, never in money. Where it is necessary fuel and food are supplied during the whole winter. The funds to provide these are collected by ladies who yearly canvass the city and are usually liberally supported. As this society is in general only for

the Protestant poor, a similar voluntary society exists among the Roman Catholics conducted by gentlemen called the St. Vincent de Paul Society, which gives out similar relief. The St. George's Society have an annual distribution of good cheer at Christmas. Another society of ladies called the Dorcas Society supply many destitute persons with clothing during the winter.

The provision made by the above-mentioned societies, and the existence of two institutions for the homeless, the House of Industry, and the House of Providence (Roman Catholic), in which many of the infirm and aged find a home, supply, of course, one great means for the suppression of begging and, indeed, were instituted, with the view of preventing mendicity by providing necessary shelter for the otherwise destitute. Both institutions are supported partly by a city grant, and partly by voluntary subscription. They are also, to some extent, graded, so that the more respectable aged poor are kept apart from the more disreputable class. The House of Industry has a wing erected by private benevolence, containing accommodation for aged couples, so that they need not be separated in their old age. In cases of persistent vagrancy and refusal to take advantage of these shelters, the incurable vagrants are sent to jail.

At the House of Industry, and also at the Salvation Army Prisongate Home, efforts are made to bring humanizing Christian influences on the tramps and vagrants, so as to make them feel more sensible of their duties as men and citizens; and efforts are also made, as far as possible, to find them work. The Salvation Army has had a good deal of success in this effort.

The indiscriminate distribution of public or private charity invariably tends to pauperize the recipients and to encourage dependence, beggary, and imposture.

The best plan for relieving poverty, looking to the elevation of the recipients to a condition of self-support and independence, is undoubtedly to provide some employment for all able to work. The great difficulty of finding work that can be done is the main obstacle with which all our schemes of relief have to contend, since if work can not be given, charity must. The "Poor Relief Society" has lately been trying in a small way to meet this difficulty by requiring able-bodied men in distress, from want of work, to cut half a cord of wood in exchange for receiving a quarter cord, this cut-wood supplied to the infirm, aged poor, or the widows who have no one to cut it for them. The effect of this attempt, so far as it has been tried, has been so encouraging as to make the committee doubly sensible to the benefit which would result to society and to the poor themselves, if some such scheme could be devised, on a large scale, for furnishing work instead of alms to the many laborers who are often thrown idle for nearly half the year.

No efforts have been made to prevent intermarriages of paupers.

CONCLUSION.

The care, control, and relief of the poor in Kingston are left entirely with the societies above mentioned. The county jail is also used for the ordinary purposes of confining those charged with crime and awaiting trial. The expense of keeping "tramps" in jail, in idleness, is attracting just now the earnest attention of the taxpayers. The humanitarians are also becoming interested in the confinement of the idle and, perhaps, not vicious "tramp" with those awaiting trial for grave criminal offenses.

M. H. TWITCHELL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Kingston, March 31, 1892.

MORRISBURG.

REPORT BY VICE-COMMERCIAL AGENT BRADFIELD.

In the rural municipalities in the province of Ontario the poor are kept by each municipality in which they live, who usually allow them so much per month, or pay their board.

The law provides for the erecting and establishing of industrial farms, workhouses, or houses of correction in any district the municipal authorities may decide; but, so far, only a few counties in the province have done this. In the united counties of Stormont, Dundas, and Glengarry, in which this consular office is situated, there is no poorhouse or industrial farm of any kind, and the way the poor are cared for is that each municipality supports their own poor. As to tramps, there is no law in these counties, excepting the general vagrancy law, the reeves or mayors of the different towns usually keeping them over night in the jail or lock-up and getting rid of them as soon as possible. The reason for this is that, although there are always some tramps, they have not become so great an evil as to call forth any special efforts to suppress them in this part of the country.

These united counties have no law prohibiting begging, nor is there any in relation to paupers intermarrying. The counties' council have in consideration the erecting of a poorhouse for persons within the county; but, so far as I can learn, the tramp question has not been brought before them.

G. F. BRADFIELD,
Vice-Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Morrisburg, March 2, 1892.

NOVA SCOTIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL FRYE, OF HALIFAX.

(1) There have been no special enactments in Nova Scotia in relation to tramps. Vagrants may be arrested and sent to prison under the general law of Canada. I think this is not often done. There seems to be less complaint of the tramp nuisance here than in the United States.

(2) The support of the poor is a charge upon the city, town, or poor district, as the case may be. Those persons have no legal settlement, and consequently are not chargeable to any poor district. They are considered transient paupers, and become a charge on the provincial treasury. Many poor people are assisted by private charities and by charitable institutions, of which the city of Halifax supports a large number.

Under exceptional circumstances, such as a failure of the fisheries or of crops, distress may assume more than a local aspect, and in such cases the government of the province would make some provision for the relief of destitution. Such relief may be granted by a distribution of provisions, for which receipts or notes are taken. In other cases the destitute people are furnished employment on some kind of public works. But this mode of granting government relief is exceptional. The general principle that the support of the poor is a local charge upon the people is recognized and acted upon.

In Halifax, during the season of the year when there is little demand for labor, the poor are often employed by the city in breaking stone largely used in building or repairing streets.

(3) I know of special efforts being made for the punishment or suppression of begging beyond that of arresting such people for vagrancy.

(4) I am not aware that any special attempt is being made to convert beggars and tramps to self-supporting members of society. As before stated, they are sometimes given an opportunity to work and earn a living, and no doubt are often advised to labor even on small pay rather depend on public charity.

(5) It is not to be presumed that public or private charities are indiscriminately dispensed to a great extent. The effect of such a practice would be to encourage beggars and tramps to continue their vocation rather than to induce them to become industrious and self-supporting citizens.

(6) Probably the system of distribution of charities, public or private, which relieves, or partially relieves, the present and pressing wants of the destitute, and at the same time either gives them employment or points out the means of obtaining it and of thereby helping themselves, tends to make the recipients self-supporting. But in most communi-

there is a class of indolent, shiftless people, quite wanting in self-respect or ambition. Probably no system is equal to relieving society of this class altogether.

(7) There appears to be no legal restraint on the marriage of the poor in this province, if of age and unmarried, and able to pay a few dollars for the marriage certificate which is required by law.

WAKEFIELD G. FRYE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Halifax, March 31, 1892.

OTTAWA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LAY.

(1) There is no special law regulating the control or management of tramps in Canada, but in the cities and towns by-laws are in force giving the police supervision over that class. They are watched by the police and sometimes locked up in the police station for twenty-four hours. In many cities and towns the benevolent people have established houses of refuge where tramps are kept for a time and an effort made to give them work. These houses of refuge frequently receive a small per capita allowance from the province, according to the number of paupers received—about 5 cents per day per head. The additional sum for their support is derived from private charity.

(2) There is no special method employed for the distribution of alms. Poorhouses are in some few instances established in counties and are supported out of county funds.

(3) Police in cities and towns exercise some supervision over beggars where the individuals are regarded as impostors, but ordinarily there is no interference.

(4) There are various charitable organizations regulated and controlled by private benevolence, for looking after beggars, the province allowing a small stipend per day per head, where the province approves of the particular charity. There are but few beggars or tramps in Canada, and no special efforts are employed other than the above to convert them to self-supporting members of society.

(5) The effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities are the same in all countries, tending to create a class that become dependent.

(6) The best system is where the recipients are made to work, in the refuges, thus aiding in their own support. In all well-regulated asylums, prisons, and houses of refuge the inmates are made to engage in some

occupation, the women to wash, laundry, sew, knit, etc., and men are made to work at such employment as seems most suitable to them.

(7) The evil of pauper intermarriages has not existed in Canada to such an extent as to have evoked any expression of public opinion.

RICHARD G. LAY,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE GENERAL,
Ottawa, March 24, 1892.

PORT SARNIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL PACE.

People who subsist by begging, and who are designated as tramps or vagrants, in the towns or cities of this province are controlled by municipal statutes. In this county there is no county house or county farm or other refuge for this class of the world's unfortunate. The county jail is the only edifice to furnish them shelter, to which place they are consigned by the sentence of the police court judge or magistrate.

In the county council, as in town councils, a committee is appointed, designated the "indigent poor committee;" to this committee is referred all cases of persons requiring aid, and appropriations are made in conformity with the recommendations of this committee.

Under the vagrant act tramps are imprisoned from ninety days to one year. I can not say that this method has any tendency to suppress vagrancy; on the contrary, I believe this system rather encourages idleness and profligacy. The tramp in this country does not differ materially from his counterpart in the United States; he is a person devoid of pride or self-respect. To a certain extent, however, he is still actuated by the instinct of self-preservation, and to avoid hunger and cold he actually seeks a refuge in the jail.

I can not learn that any attempts have been made to convert the tramp, and I verily believe the best of efforts in that direction are doomed to failure, so long as mistaken philanthropy continues to feed him.

No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers so far as I can ascertain from reading and inquiry.

SAMUEL D. PACE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Port Sarnia, March 8, 1892.

PORT STANLEY AND ST. THOMAS.

REPORT BY CONSUL HUSHER.

(1) In St. Thomas tramps are lodged in the police station over night.

(2) The methods employed for the distribution of alms are ladies' aid societies.

(3) In St. Thomas and the other villages in the district beggars are arrested, brought before a magistrate, and, if found guilty, sent to the working house or industrial home in Elgin County.

(4) No efforts are being made to convert beggars and tramps to self-supporting members of society.

(5) Indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities helps to increase begging.

(6) The ladies aid societies, before mentioned, have proved to be the best mediums for the distribution of public charities, looking to the elevation of the recipients of such charities, to the condition of self-support and self-respect and self-confidence, and their ultimate rehabilitation as good members of society.

(7) No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers.

F. A. HUSHER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Port Stanley and St. Thomas, June 6, 1892.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL HALL, OF CHARLOTTETOWN.

(1) In this city, by a statute entitled "An act respecting public morals and public correction," a magistrate is empowered to imprison vagrants for any term not exceeding six months.

(2) No regular method of distribution of alms, outside of what is done by the various churches. Their efforts are the appointment of persons whose duty is to find the poor, inquire into each case, and report to central committee.

(3) The magistrate occasionally imprisons professional beggars in the common jail, under the statute mentioned in answer to question No. 1.

(4) No systematic efforts are being made to convert beggars or tramps to self-supporting members of society, outside of the churches. These take an organized interest in their social condition. Efforts are made to secure better lodging places and rooms; improved sanitary conditions; opening warm and comfortable rooms from 7 p. m. to 10:30 p. m.; providing healthy amusements and wholesome refreshments; temper-

ance and social-purity work; a labor bureau; visiting police court and jail, and helping all who ask help on promise of effort to do better.

Evidences of success are many and very marked.

(6) The best system of distribution of public and private charities, looking to the elevation of the recipients of such charities to the condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence, and their ultimate rehabilitation as good members of society, is that recited in answer to No. 4.

(7) No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriages of paupers.

I. C. HALL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Charlottetown, P. E. Island, March 21, 1892.

QUEBEC.

REPORT BY CONSUL RYDER.

In an interview with a prominent city official on the subject of "tramps," I was informed that this city was to be congratulated on the fact that it is not infested by tramps. I assured the gentleman that there was reason, indeed, for congratulation, upon such a happy state of affairs; at the same time felicitating myself on having stumbled upon the solution of a vexatious problem which has so long puzzled the authorities at home, and seemed no nearer solved than when it first became a question.

Upon further investigation and inquiry from city authorities for such information as could be applied in abating the tramp nuisance in the United States, I found the remedy applied at least a novel one, yet, it would appear, an expensive one.

There is a Dominion statute for the suppression of vagrancy, but this is so seldom enforced that it has become, practically, a "dead letter," and any special legislation on the subject is not considered necessary. A custom has been so long in usage in this city that it is looked upon almost as a law, and to this does the locality attribute its freedom from tramps. When one of these vagrants apply to the police for assistance or lodging, he is locked up and brought before the recorder next morning on a charge of vagrancy; he is then given the option of being sent to jail for a stated term or being returned, at the expense of the city, to the place from which he hailed. The latter alternative is invariably chosen, and the tramp is furnished with passage—an agreement which appears mutually satisfactory. The city authorities are thereby relieved of the expense incurred by his maintenance at the common jail, and the probability of prosecuting him for some offense committed after his release; the tramp, also, pleased at the prospect of

a comfortable seat in a second-class railway car (with an additional lunch en route, if the distance be great), is escorted by an officer and placed on the train, where he is whirled to his destination (?) in luxury, without any exertion on his part, precaution being taken to insure his arrival at such point by placing the ticket in the hands of the conductor, with necessary instructions.

Is it to be wondered at, then, that tramps do not infest this locality—that is, remain any longer than is actually required for the procuring of these passports—when such a pleasure trip awaits them, and which can be had for the asking?

To the question, "Can you always rely upon what these fellows tell you; suppose, for instance, one tells you he comes from Montreal?" I was answered in the negative. The destination of these tramps is a matter which does not seem to concern the authorities, as long as he is out of their jurisdiction—unless the objective point is too remote—it being presumed that officials at that place would pass him on in the same manner until he reached his final goal, or until he wearied of such continuous round of travel.

The only method of distributing alms in this city is through the medium of charitable and benevolent associations, all of which are connected with religious bodies. There is no provision made from any municipal fund for the assistance of the city's poor.

The soliciting of alms is looked upon as a legitimate calling, where people are in needy circumstances, many professional beggars being provided with credentials from the parish priest or some personage prominent in religion or politics. A regularly organized system of begging is carried on in this locality, second only to the poorer sections of Italy. The city is divided into districts by these beggars, each section being visited on certain days; thus householders are called upon daily to contribute to these vagrants, who press their claims with such persistence that, in case of refusal to render assistance, the occupants are abused and frequently insulted. In many cases food or clothing is refused; money only will be received.

No effort is being made to suppress or punish vagrancy—in fact, vagrants are looked upon as a natural adjunct to every community; neither is any attempt made to convert them from such an existence as they lead. They are inhabitants of a particular locality, have large families, and the children are taught to beg as soon as they are able to walk; even the post-office is so infested by these begging children that a person is compelled to push them aside in order to approach the boxes or the public wicket, and is solicited for "charity" on every side. In addition, there are soliciting upon the streets some of the most horribly deformed persons, such as should never be permitted on thoroughfares where ladies are obliged to pass. Corners of streets are also occupied by these professional beggars, where they have told the same pitiful story for years.

This nuisance is the direct result of indiscriminate and promiscuous almsgiving, and to such an extent is it being carried on that the charitably disposed citizens are becoming convinced that their only relief lies in a systematic distribution of alms, through an organized board, with a competent superintendent, whose duty it shall be to ascertain who are worthy among the poor, and render such assistance as their condition requires, absolutely refusing all solicitations for aid, unless an investigation has been made by such board.

In addition to almsgiving, an interest will also be taken in behalf of the children of these poor people (as there are no restraints placed upon the intermarriage of paupers) and efforts put forth to provide such employment for them as will tend to make them self-supporting instead of public charges upon the community.

FREDERICK M. RYDER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Quebec, Canada, March 18, 1892.

ST. HYACINTH.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT WILLETT.

(1) When tramps appear at the station-house in this place and ask for shelter, food, or protection, they are invariably given it. Their meals consist of coffee or tea, bread and butter. They are then notified to leave town as quickly as possible for them to do so. Should they loiter and linger around, they are then arrested and punished by sentence of one week of hard labor in the county jail.

(2) No charities are allowed to be given or distributed in the town without an order verbally or written by the chief of police.

(3) Professional beggars or persons found begging indiscriminately in the streets will be arrested and upon conviction will be imprisoned in the county jail for a term of two to five weeks.

(4) No efforts are being made to convert beggars and tramps to self-supporting members of society.

(5) The effects of discriminate dispensation of public and private charities are excellent, many rich and benevolent persons have donated and bequeathed money for the support of the poor and needy, indiscriminate the reverse.

(6) The best system so far proven for the distribution of public and private charities, looking to the elevation of the recipients to the condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence, and their ultimate rehabilitation as good members of society. They have a society named St. Paul, whose members furnish such means as are really required. This institution has had several endowments and bequests for its maintenance. An act was introduced in the Provincial Parliament for an appropriation to build a public almshouse at this place, but it failed to pass.

(7) Very strict efforts have been made to prevent intermarriages of paupers with good results. Paupers can not marry without a certificate from the parish priest, and then only on extraordinary occasions.

EDWARD W. WILLETT,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
St. Hyacinth, May 19, 1892.

SHERBROOKE.

REPORT BY CONSUL WOOD.

In this city all "tramps" are warned by the police to leave town, and failing to do so are arrested and placed in the city lockup until morning. They are then given another chance and advised to leave immediately. If found again they are sent to jail for two days. At about 4 o'clock in the morning they are taken out of town 3 or 4 miles by the police, and a strict injunction is there given them to never again be seen in this vicinity. At the same time they are subjected to a novel but vigorous treatment, which makes a lasting impression, as the same parties are never here again. This method of treatment has been followed for several years, and has been found to be the only punishment that will effectually rid the city of tramps, consequently it is left for other towns to "convert them to self-supporting members of society."

The local poor and beggars are looked after by the clergy, who personally investigate each particular case, report their needs, and ask for relief of the "inspector for the relief of the poor," who is also chief of police. Aid is furnished to such families not to exceed $1 a week, of all who have been inhabitants of the city for one year. All others are sent to their former homes.

The inspector of poor is a man of intelligence and has had a large experience in his department. He finds places of employment for those who are able to work, and through his efforts the number of beggars is kept down to a small per cent of the population. "The effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities" has been found by former experience to be bad, and for this reason has been discouraged and in a large measure discontinued. The deserving poor receive aid as aforesaid, and this has seemed to be the best system of distribution of public and private charities.

No public efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers other than that oversight of the inspector of poor, who discourages all such marriages, and in most cases has been successful in preventing them.

JAMES A. WOOD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sherbrooke, April 9, 1892.

THREE RIVERS.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH.

The following report is so full and suggestive that I transmit it intact, feeling assured that the parties interested will be obliged to me.

NICHOLAS SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Three Rivers, March 17, 1892.

[L. U. A. Genest, clerk of the peace, to Consul Smith.]

(1) In the Province of Quebec characters generally known as "tramps" are not born subjects of Canada. They are the product of the vagrant emigration from Europe, especially from Germany, Hungary (gypsies), Ireland, England, and Italy. Through immigration, some years ago, in one single year, in the small city of Three Rivers, five German insane male adults have been found, all of a sudden, strolling in the streets. The fare of such passengers on emigrant ships, from Europe to America, costs Germany about $30 per head, and their maintenance in the lunatic asylums of Canada costs the latter country about $130 a year. That trade was all in favor of Germany! Gypsies are the greatest plague wherever they make their appearance. They are determined criminals, helping themselves freely from the farmers' supplies. The two classes run over the country, and the farmers are only too glad to get rid of them by supplying them with their need, provided they leave the place to go elsewhere.

The United States and Canada ought to resist, by all means, the immigration of paupers and criminals from Europe. I would suggest to levy a heavy fine against each steamship for every individual passenger of that class, with the further punishment of taking them back where they came from, without landing from the ship. In Canada I pity Montreal, and in the United States I pity New York, Portland, and Boston for being infested by that most deplorable class of immigration, which ought to be stopped at once.

The Revised Statutes of Canada, cap. 157, provide a fine of $50 and six months jail against every "tramp" or "vagrant"; our city by-laws have also similar provisions, and when the tramps give annoyance to anyone, or misbehave, they are fined and imprisoned, I find, for too short periods in Montreal, because there they appear to become regular customers of the police courts at short intervals. Here, when we put them in jail, we make the period longer, and it acts in a most salutary manner upon them. Again, I repeat, the United States and Canada should keep a very severe police on every steamship bringing into America this pauper, vagrant, criminal, and insane immigration.

In the Province of Quebec we have one class of beggars who go about from one parish to another begging. This class is generally composed of individuals born in the country. They are harmless; they go from house to house, asking alms, and country people generally do give them alms. However, we have a law (the Revised Statutes of Canada, cap. 157) to controll them. They are required to have certificate from the parish priest, or clergyman, or from the mayor, or from a justice of the peace of the parish or municipality wherein they go asking alms, declaring that they are deserving objects of charity. This certificate holds good only for six months. This has the effect of keeping an eye over them, of making them cautious, sober, and well behaved, and of keeping them within the limits of their several parishes.

(2) Alms are given to traveling beggars, on certificates, as above mentioned. Besides that, we have a religious and benevolent society known as the "St. Vincent de Paul Society," which is getting established in every city and parish of the Province of Quebec, and which is doing an immense deal of good. That society is purely benevolent. It is composed of a great many members with a board of directors. The society collects funds (1) from contributions among its members; (2) from gifts and donations from charitable persons; (3) from bazaars; (4) from pilgrimages, for which Ste. Anne de Beaupré, in the Province of Quebec, is much noted. In summer, these pilgrimages afford to a large religious class of persons the opportunity of making a cheap, orderly, and religious excursion to a place of devotion. The fares by railways and by boats are reduced, thus allowing the society to realize a large saving on the excursion, whilst the railway and the boats reap a good benefit by the large number of travelers, who themselves benefit by the change of air afforded by the trip and by the devotion and piety practiced on the voyage. In winter, a number of visitors are appointed from among the members of the St. Vincent de Paul Society; they visit, once a week, every house needing assistance. They give moral as well as economic advice to those whom they visit. They take a census of the persons composing the family. They seek and procure employment to each of them as much as possible, so that none of them will remain idle voluntarily. No person who is not sober and moral or who is a stranger to the locality, receives support from that society, which indeed achieves a great deal of good among the class of the unfortunate and deserving poor.

Alms are also distributed and medical aid procured by the religious communities of nuns who, by means of bazaars and charitable donations raise funds for that object.

(3) Beggars who are drunkards, dishonest and undeserving, or who beg without the required certificate, are treated as vagrants; they are arrested and punished by fine and imprisonment under the provisions of the Revised Statutes of Canada, cap. 157, and the city by-laws. A long imprisonment has always a good deterrent effect.

(4) This is attended by the clergy and by the St. Vincent de Paul Society with good results. The state or municipal authorities have attempted nothing in that direction.

(5) From the generous and most charitable dispositions of the country people of the Province of Quebec, who very often do not exact the required certificate from beggars, it occurs very often that undeserving poor collect and receive much assistance which they abuse; but I suppose this is an evil which can not be corrected and is one of the shortcomings of human society.

(6) Undoubtedly, the organization of the St. Vincent de Paul and the nuns of Providence have proven, in this Province of Quebec, to be the best agents for the ends mentioned in this question.

(7) We have no legal provision to meet this case. This is left entirely to the religious influence of the clergy.

L. U. A. GENEST,
Clerk of the Peace, Three Rivers.

THREE RIVERS, *March 15, 1892.*

WAUBAUSHENE AND ORILLIA.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT SOULE.

(1) I have interviewed the proper officers of Orillia, a town of 5,000 inhabitants, and find that they have but little trouble with "tramps." Whenever they appear in town and ask for food they are placed in the "lockup," given a 5-cent loaf of bread (2 pounds) with water, and a bench for a bed, and in the morning they are driven out of town. It is not often that more than two appear at one time, and they never return, preferring to go where they can get more to eat and a softer bed upon which to sleep.

(2) Alms are distributed by the relief committee, after a careful investigation. No money is given the applicant, but an order on some merchant is given for the quantity and kind of supplies needed. The town purchases wood one year in advance, then deals it out to those in need when it is dry. The whole amount expended for "tramps" and the "poor" of the town for the year 1890 was $452, and for the year 1891 $556.

(3) Begging is prohibited by law, punishment being inflicted in every case; therefore very few beg.

(4) The town furnish all the work they can to the needy, which in many cases keeps them from calling for aid.

(5) Indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities has a tendency to bring in those who are not actually in want, leading such to rely upon charities rather than work for their own support.

(6) The best system is thought to be the one adopted in the above named town, namely, through a competent relief committee elected annually by the town.

(7) Paupers are given to understand that if they intermarry they will receive no support from the town, yet should they marry, the town must furnish aid if needed. No person knowingly will perform the ceremony for such persons. Paupers moving into a town are immediately shipped to the place from whence they came, even at the expense of transportation.

RENEL W. SOULE.
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Waubaushene, March 12, 1892.

MEXICO.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL SUTTON, OF NUEVO LAREDO.

(1) There is here a local law making it a misdemeanor to trespass, and carrying a fine or confinement at labor. It is not, however, much enforced. Tramps go and come as they please and unless they commit some overt act, or are suspected by the police, are untouched. Crossing a railway track, or walking on one, except at crossings or stations, or stealing rides on trains are offenses for which occasional punishments are inflicted. Some Mexican cities are infested with large numbers of American tramps of the lowest class. Nothing is done to them unless, as I say, they commit some overt act or are denounced or suspected of some crime. If they resort in respectable quarters the police order them out or arrest them, when they are usually set to work out their fine of five days by street labor.

(2) There is no method. Licensed beggars ply their calling freely, but with most tolerance and success on Saturdays and feast days. Many people give each a small amount of food, clothing, or money, and a good Saturday's campaign will often support a family for a week.

(3) None. It is an institution too old to be easily changed.

(4) I know of no such efforts except occasionally and by individuals.

(5) This is the only way in which a considerable portion of the very poor are saved from starvation. Of course it is a premium on lazy beggars and tends to keep the ranks full. The number of such beggars probably increases each year. It has been charged that beggars have mutilated their children to make them more successful in this avocation.

(6) There are in Mexico several excellent institutions where orphans of each sex are taken in, reared, and made more or less self-supporting. There are also some, I believe, where the unfortunate mothers are admitted and cared for for a time in childbirth. In each principal town there is a hospital free to all the very poor, and where better accommodations can be paid for. These hospitals are supported in part by Government and municipal dues and some by private charity. Considering the relative wealth of the country many of these public hospitals are excellent; but there is usually a strong prejudice against going there, especially among the very poor.

In most towns there is a doctor for the very poor and certain medicines are furnished free at the expense of the city, both to inmates of hospitals and to out patients. Many other physicians do a great deal of what they know is charity practice and charge it up, more or less, against their well-to-do patients.

There has been no fair trial of any system, but the subject has attracted much interest, and thoughtful observers recognize the evils of the present situation and will ultimately endeavor to improve the condition of these unfortunates.

(7) I find no prohibition against the intermarriage of paupers as such, provided they comply with the other requirements as to the law. The incurably insane can not contract matrimony.

PENAL CODE.

The following, condensed from the penal code of the Federal District, has been almost universally adopted in the various States and, with certain modifications by local customs, may be stated as the law of Mexico as to vagrancy and begging.

854. A vagrant is one who, having no property or income, and being capable of labor, performs none of any sort.

855. The vagrant who, having been admonished by the police authorities, does not within ten days, obtain some honest and paid employment or prove his incapacity for labor, is punishable by from one to eleven months at hard labor. He may, if he can, give bond for from $50 to $100 that he will, in future, live by honest labor. This bond may be given at any time while the vagrant is serving out the sentence.

856. If the vagrant is under 18 years of age and over 14 years, or deaf and dumb and an orphan, the judge may, in his discretion, modify the punishment as provided in other articles.

857. Any habitual beggar who plies his or her vocation without permit from police authority is punishable by arrest from one to three months and remains under police vigilance for one year, unless he or she gives bond in $25 to $100 for one year to live in future by honest labor.

858. Until hospitals and special workshops are established for beggars, the police authority can give permits to ask alms to those who show their inability to labor and that they are without means of existence, but such permits are only good while such conditions exist.

859. Any beggar obtaining such license by fraud shall be punished for aggravated abuse of confidence.

860. Any beggar using threats or violence is punishable by one to three months' arrest even if licensed. If not licensed the proper penalty shall be imposed.

861. If three beggars go together, plying their calling, they are punishable by arrest of two to six months even if they are licensed.

362. Vagrants or beggars caught in any disguise or with arms or any instruments giving motive for suspicion that they are seeking to commit any crime are punishable by one to eleven months at hard labor and remaining under police vigilance for three years.

WARNER P. SUTTON,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Nuevo Laredo, June 18, 1892.

ACAPULCO.

REPORT BY CONSUL McCASKEY.

(1) In this section of Mexico, I am glad to say, the "native" in the role of a "tramp" is never seen. The few "tramps" seen in this vicinity are for the most part deserters from European and American ships. They are not so numerous as to become any considerable annoyance or menace to the public.

(2) As far as I am able to discover, there are no state, district, nor municipal provisions for the distribution of alms. Almsgiving is based upon private and individual benevolence. Saturday of each week is set apart for the solicitation of charity, from house to house, by those who are unable to support themselves by reason of infirmity, physical affliction, or misfortune. Each unfortunate has his regular contributors, and in this manner his few pressing wants are partially supplied. The condition of the idiotic, the insane, the blind, and the cripple is most wretched, being entirely neglected by the state. Their deplorable condition is, however, somewhat mitigated through the mildness of the climate and the abundance of food fruits, which nature produces here without cultivation.

(3) All begging here seems to be justified by the circumstances and condition of the suppliant for charity. No efforts are made for its punishment nor suppression.

(4) "Tramps" are rare and excite no public comment. The beggars are usually worthy, and unable under any circumstances to do more for themselves than they do.

(5) Charity as dispensed here I believe has no tendency to increase the number of beggars.

(6) There are no data here for a satisfactory answer to this inquiry.

(7) The state, as far as I am informed, exercises no jurisdiction over the intermarriages of paupers, though I believe that such intermarriages are rare in this country.

JAMES F. MCCASKEY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Acapulco, May 11, 1892.

CHIHUAHUA.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL HEINKE.

(1) Here in the state of Chihuahua the legislature has enacted a law against vagrancy, and compels that class known as "tramps" to leave a city or town for other parts, or to find employment; in case of failure to either find such employment or to depart for other parts, the man is arrested, declared a vagrant, and compelled to perform some sort of work for either the city or the state. The limit of such confinement is not, however, regarded as a punishment by the vagrant, as he prefers to be fed by the state and to lead the indolent Mexican prison life to being the possessor of his freedom out of jail; and he returns again and again to be punished—if punishment it may be called—as a vagrant.

(2) Regarding this question, so far as the local custom here is concerned, nothing definite can be said. Alms are distributed among the poor according to the benevolently inclined, and the poor go from door to door to solicit alms, as there are no organized orders or societies to look after the wants and needs of the destitute, deserving or otherwise. At the present time, on account of the drought of last year in the northern part of Mexico, and the consequent failure of crops, the state government of Chihuahua has bought a large quantity of corn and beans in the United States, which is being sold to the poor people here at actual cost price, and free of imports.

(3) No efforts are being made for the punishment or suppression of begging, except the penalties for vagrancy before referred to. There is a local law against begging on all week-days (except Saturday), but the law is not enforced unless a beggar becomes annoying and his presence assumes the form of a nuisance, when he is liable to arrest and conviction as a vagrant. It seems to be an acknowledged and a sanctioned custom for "beggars" here to solicit alms on all Saturdays, and they turn out that day *en masse.*

(4) As there are no "poorhouses," or "asylums for the poor," no efforts are being made for the betterment of "beggars" and "tramps" in this locality.

(5) The effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities are a general demoralization and an increased greed of the "beggar" or "tramp," and a detriment to society; and an indiscriminate dispensation of such charities has a tendency to engender an increase of the vice of begging.

(6) Various attempts have been made here in the city of Chihuahua for the rehabilitation of the recipients of charities, by the establishment of an "asylum for the destitute," with the result that after enjoying the hospitality of this institution for a week, every beggar who had left it on the day designated as one of liberty, with permission

visit his friends and relatives, remained away and never returned, d the reason these "beggars" assigned for leaving this home for the or was that it was degrading to personal character to be an inmate ereof. The "asylum" system has, therefore, been abandoned, while efforts have been made to institute other methods of reform, or to ›k for a substitute for an asylum.

(7) No efforts have ever been made here, to my knowledge, and a uper (so far as I have been able to ascertain) is as free to intermarry th a pauper as with an heiress; although there is certain legislation w under advisement in the state of Chihuahua looking toward a vernment of this identical matter.

WM. HEIMKE,
Vice-consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Chihuahua, May 4, 1892.

GUAYMAS.

REPORT BY CONSUL WILLARD.

There is no especial legislation affecting vagrants in full force in this ısular district as I am aware of.

The beggars or tramps or paupers in the different towns or cities are ɔject to police vigilance, and if there are reasons for suspecting that ɛy are thieves or vicious persons they are banished from the town by ɜ authorities.

In cases where mendicants are unable to work and can not possibly intain themselves, a small donation is made weekly by the authori-s, there being no poorhouses or places of refuge for the sick or ıabled mendicant or pauper.

Regarding the intermarriage of paupers, the laws of the country ıtrict marriage where the parties are unable to support themselves, ɜ.

A. WILLARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Guaymas, March 19, 1892.

LA PAZ.

REPORT BY CONSUL VIOSCA.

Vagrants, of whatever nature, who are found without any visible means of support or occupation are reported and brought before the authorities, who, upon an examination as to his physical or moral conditions, decide whether the party should be obliged to work or not. If found that he is unable either through sickness or decrepitude to do so, a permit is extended him to seek alms from the public; but if, on the contrary, no disablement or plausible excuse is found, he is then forced to do public work for a few days every time he is found guilty. By this means much vagrancy is avoided.

No alms-giving or charitable institutions exist for the poor outside of the public hospital, which is sustained by private individual contributions.

JAS. VIOSCA,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
La Paz, April 2, 1892.

MATAMOROS.

REPORT BY CONSUL RICHARDSON.

There is no class of vagrants known as tramps. The only tramp I have met during the year and a half of my residence here was an American who was "off his beat." There are beggars in abundance, and everybody, when rated by American standard, is poor.

There are no methods employed for the distribution of alms. Neither the State nor the city assumes any responsibility for the poor, nor is there any organization for the dispensation of charity. One year ago, during a severe epidemic of la grippe and pneumonia, the people organized a temporary society for collecting and dispensing money to those who were sick, for providing medical attendance, medicine, and such nourishing foods as were necessary during convalescence. After the epidemic was over the society was disbanded. The people as a rule are very charitable, giving freely even when it involves great sacrifice. Merchants keep on hand certain articles of merchandise, such as corn, soap, pins, remnants of cloth etc., which are dealt out to the beggars who have ways of converting these things into cash. Many families cook each day more than enough for family needs, while many others give to each beggar from one to five cents. Apparently the poor who adopt the business of begging get along well. These people have a very simple diet. A handful of corn or beans goes a long ways.

Apparently no efforts are made to punish or suppress begging. On the contrary, the system or lack of system places a premium upon it. Neither is there any systematic effort made to convert beggars into self-supporting members of society. The methods of educating the young are not practical. There are no manual labor or trade schools. Boys and girls come out of the schools with no knowledge of any of the useful arts unless it be that of penmanship or embroidery. All children, without exception, are compelled to attend school; so if the schools were more practical in their scope, effective work might be done in making the beggar class self-supporting.

The effect of the indiscriminate dispensation of charity is necessarily bad upon the recipients. There is probably a waste of funds, but the effect is not wholly lost on the giver, since it brings the giver and the recipient into personal contact, keeping fresh the philanthropic instincts.

No efforts are made that I know of to prevent the intermarriage of paupers. Any restraint on marriage would be unwise. It would not, it is said, seriously affect the number of offspring, and would therefore be promotive of vice.

JOHN B. RICHARDSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Matamoros, April 1, 1892.

NOGALES.

REPORTED BY CONSUL SMITH.

(1) Tramps are not allowed in the country. If a dissolute and worthless person is found tramping around the country he is taken up and sent to the war as a soldier, as for instance to the Taque war.

(2) There are no alms distributed. If a person is sick, he is sent to the hospital, which hospitals are under Government control, either municipal, state, or national.

(4) No efforts in this direction are made. As a general thing, individuals who are able to do so aid aged persons by private contributions, but to no great extent and under no system.

(5) No perceptible effects, except that the system, as stated in answer to question No. 1, helps to rid the country of characters who are detrimental to good order.

(6) I am inclined to the opinion that the system of distribution of charities does not add to the character of the recipient, but forcing bad characters into the army adds to the *morale* of the community.

(7) No efforts are made in the direction of prohibiting the intermarriage of paupers.

I am told that in the city of Mexico and some other parts of the Republic there are charitable institutions under the control of the General Government, but these will doubtless be fully set forth by consuls who are stationed in these communities. The numerous mescal distilleries along this border are harbors for (vagrants) dissolute characters, who when pressed by the authorities on one side of the line make good their escape to the other side. The supply of the mescal plant comes from the Arizona side of the line, while the stills are located on the Mexican side. The liquor is manufactured there and a large per cent of it is smuggled back into the United States. If some law could be enacted to heavily tax the cutting of this plant on United States soil, this evil would doubtless be abated and these vagrants who are harbored at these stills would have to resort to other fields of operation.

The temperature here is so mild and even that the wants of the people (peons) are not so great as in our country, and consequently there are fewer causes of suffering.

DELOS H. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nogales, March 9, 1892.

PIEDRAS NEGRAS.

REPORT BY CONSUL FECHÉT.

(1) Tramps are as a rule neither regulated nor controlled as a class by distinct ordnances; when they violate any law or municipal regulation they are arrested as any other person would be.

(2) No public charities to distribute alms. The Roman Catholic Church in many localities in this district give aid to helpless and deserving persons.

(3) No efforts are made to suppress begging. Mendicants are on the contrary frequently given a license or certificate by local authorities, permitting the regular solicitation of alms.

(4) No efforts are being made, distinctly as such, to convert "tramps" to self-supporting members of society.

(5) As there are no dispensations of public or private charities this question has no answer.

(6) There being no system of distribution of charities, public or private, no parallel can be drawn as to advantages of different systems.

(7) No restraints by law are imposed upon intermarriages of paupers.

EUGENE O. FECHÉT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Piedras Negras, April 2, 1892.

TAMPICO.

REPORT BY CONSUL LIEBERKNECHT.

There is no law for the governing or controlling of "tramps;" such people are not known in Mexico; the few there are come from the United States. When they attempt to make a nuisance of themselves they are "run in" and made to sweep the streets, which seems to have a wholesome effect on them, for they immediately disappear thereafter.

There are no systematic methods for the distribution of alms. The poor are given one day in each week in which to do their begging.

If caught begging at other days than those set apart for them, they are sent home by the police.

There are no systematic efforts made, private or public, to assist the poor, and no records kept in any shape. The poor have to beg and simply get along as best they can.

Being a warm, mild climate, the poor need but little, but the local government does nothing towards their support.

A. LIEBERKNECHT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Tampico, March 12, 1892.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

HONDURAS.

REPORT BY CONSUL PETERSON, OF TEGUCIGALPA.

(1) That class of vagrants generally designated "tramps" is not known as such within my consular district.

(2) There is not any organized method for the distribution of alms. The municipal authorities, after investigation, license beggars—that is, give them written permission to solicit alms on Saturdays and Sundays only. The licensed beggar goes from house to house, and receives money, food, or clothing, according to the wish of the donor.

(3) An unlicensed person found begging may be punished by the authorities, but I have never heard of such a case. The result is that promiscuous begging is frequent, but the public give but little to unlicensed parties.

(4) No efforts are being made to convert tramps or beggars into self-supporting members of society.

(5) No particular effects of the system of dispensing charities in this district are apparent. The system has been in vogue for many years, scores of years.

(6) Question 6 of the circular may be answered by saying that there has been and there is no diversity of systems of dispensing charity in this consular district, so there can be no comparison.

(7) No efforts are made to prevent intermarriage of paupers, and there are no restraints upon such marriages.

JAMES J. PETERSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Tegucigalpa, April 2, 1892.

NICARAGUA.

REPORT OF CONSUL NEWELL, OF MANAGUA.

The police code of Nicaragua establishes the right to implore charity. Before taking advantage of this right, the mendicant must appear before the alcalde of the district in which he lives and solicits assistance. He must prove the misery in which he is and his complete inability to work. The mendicant is required to present full information to the alcalde, and all data necessary to prove the truthfulness of his condition.

If the petitioner proves his misery and incapacity to work, he is given the patent which he solicits, otherwise not. It is the duty of the alcalde, without delay, to procure some occupation compatible with the condition of the mendicant.

The patent referred to is taken from the beggar when he acquires means of subsistence, or when his incapacity or impediment has disappeared, or when his conduct has become immoral and vicious.

There is no fixed method for the distribution of alms in Nicaragua. The persons giving charity use their discretion as to the manner in which it shall be distributed.

The peculiar condition of the country does not permit the authorities to impede marriage among the poor class. There is no marrying among beggars in this Republic.

Beggars are permitted to solicit alms on the streets Wednesdays and Saturdays.

WILLIAM NEWELL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Managua, Nicaragua, July 12, 1892.

SOUTH AMERICA.

BRAZIL.

PARA.

REPORT BY CONSUL AYRES.

(1) There being almost no roads, there are no "tramps" here.

(2) Except through hospitals and asylums for orphans and insane persons, there is no systematic method of giving aid.

(3) There is positively no effort in the direction of suppressing beggary.

(5) The indiscriminate dispensation of private charities seems to foster a class of fairly well-to-do professional beggars, who (and their children after them) adopt it systematically and as a matter of course. Many of them own their own little plats of ground, and are fairly comfortable, having few wants, and no ambition, and are satisfied to be known as professional leeches on the easy, good-natured people of the cities. Lazy they certainly are, but as a class, of fairly cleanly habits, free from criminal vices or intemperance, and until their ranks have latterly received very considerable accessions from importations of Russians and Jews, it is likely they would have been still received and fed with toleration, but there is now arising some resistance, which will probably culminate in some efforts being legally made for their repression. A word more may be said in this connection as to the anomalous method in vogue here of asking and receiving alms, which may prove interesting for its irregularity. Besides the ordinary class of blind, maimed, and helpless cripples, who sit on the street corners, or meander the business portions of the city daily, one day in the week is religiously set apart as the day of promiscuous almsgiving. This is Saturday. On this day the beggars of the week are reënforced by a large contingent of able-bodied looking professionals, and all have free access into all business houses of whatever character, where, standing on the threshold, they ask in a monotonous, sing-song sort of voice for alms in the name of some favorite saint and there is some religious duty involved in the fact that none are turned away empty-handed. I have known business men to detail one of their clerks to attend to this on this one day, and others lay out on a side shelf or a part of a counter, a great number of the copper coins of the country, and simply permit, by a gesture, the begger to help himself, when he takes one coin, and there are no instances of his ever over-stepping the permission, and taking more, even where there is no one to see him.

JAMES M. AYERS,
Consul.

U. S. CONSULATE.
Para, March 21, 1892.

PERNAMBUCO.

REPORT BY CONSUL STEVENS.

(1) Tramps are neither controlled nor regulated. There are police and municipal regulations, but these laws are never enforced. Sometimes the authorities here, like those in other cities, have spasms of indignation against these violators of the law, and then there are wholesale arrests. They are imprisoned for a few days and again set at liberty, and immediately proceed without hindrance to ply their vocation.

(2) The "Misericordia" or House of Mercy, under control of the priesthood, a charitable institution of two centuries old, which receives government aid, and is also helped by special taxes, is the leading charitable institution of the State. There are other institutions of a similar nature, auxiliary to this, sustained by private contributions. The beggars receive assistance from this house of mercy and other institutions at stated times, and the beggars are allowed, in addition to this, to go upon the streets. Their vocation, however, seems to be systematized. Different districts in the city are apportioned out for them to visit every day in the week. One of the connecting bridges in the city has become known as the "blind bridge," where this class of beggars is always found, but the number of blind beggars that are to be seen on the streets is most astonishing.

(3) Legally speaking, no efforts are being made for the punishment or suppression of begging. There are a number of regulations for the suppression of begging, but none are enforced.

(4) There are two or three beneficent societies, and many public-spirited men and women that try to help beggars to find employment, but their efforts are attended with little success. The habit once formed becomes chronic, and they seem to rather enjoy the mendicant life than submit themselves to the wholesome restraints that daily employment demands.

(5) Every penny placed in the hands of vagrants is simply an encouragement to continue their worthless, shiftless life, and the Brazilian people, as a rule, are noted for their generosity, and hence there is much of this public almsgiving that is more injurious than helpful.

(6) There is no system, so far as I know, for the distribution of alms except as stated in answer to query No. 2 but this, however, does not elevate the recipient. I know of nothing that has been or is being done for the elevation of this class. In this hot climate where frost is never known and the bleak winds of winter never felt, where the scantiest of clothing is sufficient, is, if self-respect is wanting, an incentive to idleness and indolence.

(7) No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers. The obstacles that have been in the way of this class were, under *the old* régime, the heavy fees exacted by the priests. Under the new,

ıe difficulty of proving affiliation and age, as well as the expense of ıblishing the marriage notices in the newspapers as required by law. ut these restraints only lead to what is still worse, open concubinage.

EDWIN STEVENS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Pernambuco, May 21, 1892.

RIO GRANDE DO SUL.

REPORT BY CONSUL NEGLEY.

Formerly begging on the streets and from house to house was a com-ıon thing in this city, having reduced itself to a system whereby the eggars came around every Saturday for alms, and on no other day. It as not unusual at that period for commercial houses to provide them-elves with a great sack of "bolaches," or sea biscuit, one of which was iven to each beggar who came along.

When slavery was abolished it was feared that mendacity and vagran-y would greatly increase, but such proved not to be the case. The great ɔcial revolution was so gradually and peacefully brought about, that ıe friendly relations of master and servant were not in the least dis-ırbed. The great majority of the freed men and women soon found ork for themselves, and earned a decent livelihood, while the few cases absolute want and helplessness were provided for by the families to hich these unfortunates had previously belonged.

At present there are very few confirmed beggars and vagrants to be ɔticed on the streets of the cities of this State. Whether this be due the penal code of Brazil, which provides for their arrest and punish-ent, or to the development of the country, by reason of which many ɔportunities are offered for gaining a living, or to increased relief to e destitute, it would be difficult to say; probably, in a measure, to all ree. But from whatever cause, it is true, that "tramps," while not ıknown, are by no means common in Rio Grande do Sul.

A copy of the penal code of Brazil, pertaining to the subject of beg-ırs and vagrants, will be found in inclosure 1.

The charities of this State are mainly private, entirely so with the ception of a slight assistance from the government to public hospitals. The "Asylo de Mendigos," or Asylum for Mendicants, is, as its name ıplies, a sort of private almshouse, the "statutes and regulations" of ıich are submitted in Exhibit B.

Besides this, there is the "Asylo do Coracão de Maria," an orphans' ylum where children from 5 to 13 years of age are received, according the "statutes," but, in practice, only girls between those ages.

Many poor people are assisted by well-to-do-families who are familiar ıth the circumstances of those they relieve, and who are, therefore, not ıble to be imposed upon.

For the sick and destitute there is the "Santa Casa de Misericordia," which originated in the gift of a philanthropist, and has since been maintained chiefly by legacies and donations. There is, however, a tax levied by the government on all merchant ships which enter the port, in return for which any sick sailors are treated free of further charge. There is also a tax levied upon liquors, and from time to time special appropriations by the State for the benefit of the hospital; but its main support is, as I have said, from private sources.

The hospital also derives a revenue from the two cemeteries, Catholic and Protestant, which it owns and controls, and for which it furnishes carriages, which are let at certain fixed rates, according to the class of the funeral.

In connection with the hospital is a dispensary, where medicines are furnished free to the poor, as also medical advice.

It may not be out of place to mention here a noble practice on the part of the physicians of this city, and I presume the same is true in other cities of this State. A number of the leading physicians have a room, where one of them devotes an hour, each on a separate day during the week, to free consultation with any poor person who is not able to pay a doctor's bill. This generosity is not abused by the people, only those who are obliged to availing themselves of the privilege so unselfishly offered.

The building of the "Misericordia" is large and commodious, the number of patients treated there during the year averaging about 600.

Idiots are also received and cared for in the hospital, in the absence of any separate institution for them.

This hospital also takes charge of abandoned infants or "expostos," as they are called. The building is provided with a revolving wooden cylinder, the half of which projects beyond the wall at a convenient distance above the sidewalk. In this receptacle the little ones are deposited by their unnatural parents, and a turn puts them inside the institution, where they are reared and kept until situations are found for them in respectable families or elsewhere. The Orphan's Asylum receives a certain number every year. The number of "expostos" is not great, there being about 20 in the "Misericordia" at the present time. It is noticeable that most of the abandoned infants are of white parentage.

In addition to the "Misericordia," there is a very excellent private hospital, under the charge and especially for the benefit of the Portuguese residents of this city, though admitting members of other nationalities under certain conditions.

It is called the "Sociedade Portugueza de Beneficencia," and its objects are set forth in the following preamble:

The Sociedade Portugueza de Beneficencia, established in the city of Rio Grande, etc., is composed of Portuguese and others, admitted in conformity with these statutes, who are associated for the following objects:

(1) To receive into the infirmary of the society sick members who request it, to lend them such assistance as they may be in need of, and for those who die in poverty to provide religious services and interment.

(2) To assist with the necessary means those members who, under justifiable circumstances or grave sickness, need to leave the State and are in want of means.

(3) To lend all succor compatible with the finances of the society to Portuguese who are wrecked on the bar of this port, and to the newly arrived who are sick.

(5) To extend to Portuguese confessedly indigent and of manifest incapacity, physical or moral, the benefits conceded to members, extending also aid to the wives, widows, and minor orphans of members who are in a like condition, and to practice other acts of kindness virtually embraced within the objects of this society.

(6) To make efforts to correct Portuguese of irregular lives and to find them employment in honest work, whether they be members or not.

(7) To promote and aid the reparation, or at least the mitigation, of any reverse or misfortune of which any of its members may be the victims, whether in body, in fortune, or reputation.

The members are classed as active, ransomed, auxiliary, benefactors, distinguished, and very worthy, according to the services, pecuniary or otherwise, which they may render to the society. The active members are Portuguese of honest occupation and regular lives, who, without needing any immediate assistance, are duly admitted. The ransomed are those members of any nationality who, upon their admission, pay a fee of 120$000 Rs [$60 at the par of exchange, but only about $30 at the present time]. No one can be admitted into the active or auxiliary classes except upon the payment of a fee of at least 20$000 Rs, and a nonthly due of 1$000 Rs. The latter may be remitted at any time ipon the payment of 100$000 Rs.

The hospital is located in commodious and healthful quarters, and is well-conducted establishment in every particular. The statement for 891 shows a patrimony, including real and personal property, of 67,777$495 Rs, or about $40,000 at the present low exchange. The umber of members is 112 and the number of sick members treated uring the past year 247, of which 236 left the hospital cured, 8 died, nd 13 remain under treatment.

All the hospitals and asylums are organized in substantially the same ray, by directors, composed of leading citizens, who take an active inerest and participation in their management, only the actual employés eceiving pay for their services.

Such, then, are the methods employed in Rio Grande for the regulaon of vagrants, the distribution of alms, and the relief of the sick, not mention the various orders and societies, among which the Masons re especially strong.

The cities of Pelotas and Porto Alegre, in this State, have the same egulations and are provided with similar institutions, all supported y private donations, except the public hospitals, which receive the tax om vessels, and upon liquors, referred to.

At Porto Alegre the Germans have a fine hospital, principally for ie sick of that nationality, but admitting others, like the Portugese ospital here.

Lotteries are sometimes held for the benefit of the hospitals and asylums, or at least a certain proportion of the profits accrue to their benefit under special statutes.

There are no public almshouses and no State infirmaries of any kind in Rio Grande do Sul.

As to the prevention of paupers intermarrying, such a thing has never been dreamed of in this country.

CHARLES NEGLEY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Rio Grande do Sul, May 14, 1892.

PENAL CODE OF BRAZIL.

[Inclosure 1 in Consul Negley's report.]

CHAPTER XII.—*Beggars and drunkards.*

ART. 391. To beg, having health and capacity for work. Penalty: Solitary confinement from 8 to 30 days.*

ART. 392. To beg, being unable to work, in places where there exist hospitals and asylums for mendicants. Penalty: Solitary confinement from 5 to 15 days.

ART. 393. To beg, feigning infirmities, pretending to be an object of commiseration, or using a threatening and vexatious manner. Penalty: Solitary confinement from 1 to 2 months.

ART. 394. To beg in bands or together, not being father or mother with children under age, husband and wife, or a blind or crippled person with guide. Penalty: Solitary confinement from 1 to 3 months.

ART. 395. To permit a person under 14 years of age, subject to one's power, or confided to one's guardianship and care, to go about begging and take the profit, either for one's self or for another. Penalty: Solitary confinement from 1 to 3 months.

CHAPTER XIII.—*Vagrants and "capoeiras."*

ART. 399. To cease to exercise a profession, office, or any business whatever, in which one may be gaining a livelihood and a certain domicile in which to live, in order to try to gain sustenance by means of an occupation prohibited by law or manifestly offensive to morals and good manners. Penalty: Solitary confinement from 15 to 30 days.

§ 1. By the same sentence which shall condemn a transgressor as a vagrant or vagabond, he shall be obliged to sign a bond to undertake some occupation within 15 days, counting from the fulfillment of his penalty.

§ 2. Minors of 14 years and upward shall be gathered into disciplinary industrial establishments, where they shall be kept until the age of 21 years.

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*"Prisão Cellular," imprisonment in a cell, or solitary confinement as I have translated the special legal term, is defined as follows:

"Prisão Cellular,' will be fulfilled in a special establishment, with isolation in a cell and obligatory work under the following rules: (*a*) If the imprisonment shall not exceed one year, isolation in a cell for a fifth part of its duration; (*b*) if the imprisonment shall exceed one year, isolation in a cell for a period equal to the fourth part of its duration, provided said isolation does not exceed two years.

In the successive periods, work in common, segregation at night, and silence during the day.

Then follows certain abatements for good conduct, freedom on trial, etc., if the period of imprisonment shall exceed six years. As imprisonment for vagrancy never equals this period, it is not necessary to give these rules.

ART. 400. If the bond be broken, which shall amount to a repetition, the transgressor shall be confined from 1 to 3 years in one of the penal colonies to be established on the maritime islands or on the frontier of the national territory, it being possible to make use of the existing military garrisons for this purpose.

Sole paragraph.—If the transgressor shall be a foreigner he shall be transported.

ART. 401. The penalty imposed upon those transgressors to whom the preceding articles refer shall be extinguished if the condemned shall prove the acquisition after sentence of sufficient revenue for his support, and the sentence shall be suspended if he present satisfactory bail.

Sole paragraph.—When upon demand the bail shall be adjudged released, the sentence shall become operative upon the condemned, having been suspended by reason of said bail.

[The concluding part of this chapter, from Art. 402 to the end, is omitted, as it refers to certain peculiar practices of the "Cabocles" or Indians of this country. Also from Art. 396 to the end of the preceding chapter is omitted, referring to a different subject than the one under investigation.]

MENDICANT ASYLUM OF RIO GRANDE DO SUL.

[Inclosure 2 in Consul Negley's report.]

CHAPTER I.

ARTICLE 1. The Asylum for Mendicants is founded by a society of indefinite membership, and it is intended solely to give shelter and sustenance to those persons confessedly mendicants and indigents, of both sexes, who, by reason of advanced age, state of ill health, blindness, or lameness, are not able to work and are deprived of the means of an honest livelihood, and who do not have any one whose duty it is to shelter and support them.

CHAPTER II.—*The Members and Their Qualifications.*

ART. 2. The association is composed of all persons who agree to contribute a monthly due, together with an entrance fee [jewel, literally], such as the generous and philanthropic sentiments of each one may dictate.

ART. 3. Those members who shall make a donation to the society of any amount over 200$000Rs (about $100 when the society was established) will be entitled "benefactors;" those who shall present a government bond of the value of 1,000$000Rs or its equivalent will be entitled "very worthy members" and shall be exempted from monthly dues as well as released from all services, except such as they may wish to render.

ART. 4. There shall be a class of lady protectresses, composed of such ladies as may wish to contribute any monthly due whatever, among whom a directory of twelve shall be chosen annually, whose duty it shall be, each one in her respective month, to watch over everything that may pertain to the department of the female inmates.

CHAPTER II.—*The property of the society and the revenues and their application.*

ART. 5. The property of the society will be classed in the following manner:

§ 1. Donations or entrance fees and any gifts whatever in favor of the society.

§ 2. The balance of receipts over expenditures.

ART. 6. The revenues of the society will be derived—

§ 1. From the monthly dues of members.

§ 2. From interest on its own capital.

§ 3. From the profits of the work of those inmates who shall be in a condition to work

ART. 7. As soon as the capital shall be sufficient the directory shall convoke a general assembly and present to it a proposition for the erection of an edifice suitable for the installation of the asylum.

CHAPTER IV.—*Administration of the society.*

ART. 9. There shall be a directory, composed of a president, vice-president, administrator, and 12 directors, one for each month, whose duties shall be as follows:

§ 1. To see that the statutes and regulations are observed.

§ 2. To organize and, whenever it may be necessary, to reform the interior management of the asylum, and to submit the same to the approval of the general assembly.

§ 3. To propose to the general assembly, whenever it may be necessary, any modification or amendment of the statutes.

§ 4. To determine what mendicant or indigent applicants are to be admitted.

§ 5. To create the necessary offices and stipulate with the employés in regard to their duties and pay.

§ 6. To have an understanding with the authorities, so that mendicity will not be allowed upon the streets.

§ 7. To examine the accounts of the treasurer every six months, or as often as may be deemed necessary.

§ 8. To nominate directors of the month in case those elected or their successors are for any reason unable to perform their duties.

§ 9. To draw up and submit to a committee of examination, in the month of January of each year, a statement and a balance sheet of its administration, in order that the said committee may present its opinion, which shall be conjointly sumbitted to the approval of the general assembly at its usual general session.

§ 10. After submitting a statement to the committee for the examination of accounts, it shall deliver to the said committee all the official books, without reserv, and furnish such information as may be necessary for the committee to perform its duties.

§ 11. To insure the safety of the furniture and utensils of the asylum.

§ 12. To represent the society whenever it may be necessary.

§ 13. To provide, in short, for all things that are not expressly set forth in the statutes and regulations.

ART. 10. The directory shall not be able to organize unless at least five of its members shall be present; the acting president shall have the casting vote.

CHAPTER V.—Duties of members of the directory.

ART. 11. It is the duty of the president:

§ 1. To convoke the sessions of the general assembly and of the directory.

§ 2. To preside at the sessions, grant the privilege of speaking to members, whether of the general assembly or the directory, which privilege shall always be asked for.

§ 3. To see that the discussions are conducted in a respectful manner, and to call the member who has the floor to order whenever he shall deviate from this rule.

§ 4. To present at the ordinary general session a statement of the condition of the society, its property, revenues, disbursements, the movement (the coming and going of the inmates) of the asylum, and other matters of importance, which statement shall be signed by all the directory.

§ 5. To authorize with his signature the payment of all debts of the society, after the same have been viséed by the procurador.

§ 6. To sign the monthly subscriptions and diplomas.

ART. 12. The vice-president shall in the absence of the president perform his duties.

ART. 13. It is the duty of the secretary:

§ 1. To expedite the business of the sessions of the directory and of the general assembly.

§ 2. To attend to all correspondence, of which he will keep a copy.

§ 3. To inspect the balances presented to the directory by the treasurer, as well as the statistics of the asylum.

§ 4. To arrange and preserve the archives of the society, and to care for all things pertaining to his office.

§ 5. To take the place of the vice-president in his absence.

ART. 14. It is the duty of the treasurer:

§ 1. To collect and keep all moneys and valuables of the society.

§ 2. To disburse these receipts in accordance with the orders of the directory and the general assembly.

§ 3. To submit to the directory at the end of every six months, and as oftener as may be required of him, a balance of the receipts and expenditures during his term of office, and a statement of the property of the society.

§ 4. Not to pay any bill without the visé of the procurador, or director of the month, and the signature of the president.

§ 5. To accelerate the collection of the monthly dues, and to see that the collector uses all his efforts for the prompt realization of the same.

§ 6. To draw up, every three months, from the account-book receipts for the monthly dues, which will be furnished by the directory and signed by the president.

ART. 15. It is the duty of the procurador:

§ 1. To promote, by all means within his power, the increase of the society.

§ 2. To care for all the external business of the society.

§ 3. To call for proposals in the journals, in the name of the directory, for the provisioning of the asylum, in conformity with the requirements of Art. 25.

§ 4. To visé all the credit accounts of the society, except those within the authority of the director of the month.

§ 5. To take the place of the administrator in his absence.

ART. 16. It is the duty of the administrator:

§ 1. To inscribe in a suitable book the movement of the asylum, and to assist the director of the month in the exercise of his functions.

§ 2. To take the place of the director of the month and of the procurador in their absence.

§ 3. Not to allow any person to be received into the asylum except in conformity with the requirements of Art. 31; and to take note of the birthplace, condition, sex, profession, or means of livelihood of the applicant, and see if he be one to whom shelter and support may be given; and whether the number of admissions prescribed by the regulations in accordance with the accommodations of the building, is filled, and to give an account of everything to the directory.

CHAPTER VI.—*The directors of the month.*

ART. 17. It is the duty of the director of the month:

§ 1. To visit the asylum daily during his month in order to see that the inmates are not deprived of the necessary conveniences and that a proper reception and treatment is given.

§ 2. To buy personally such articles as are not included in the proposals for provisioning the asylum and to sign the respective accounts and bills, in order that the interests of the society may be more easily supervised.

§ 3. To see that the food furnished to the inmates is in good condition and of good quality.

§ 4. To cause the interior management of the asylum to be properly conducted and to see that the employés fulfill their duties, having the right to admonish them and even to suspend them from the exercise of their functions in case of the repetition of a fault, or of a grave dereliction of duty, until the further decision of the directory to whom he will immediately communicate the offense.

§ 5. To take part in the sessions and deliberations of the directory.

CHAPTER VII.—*The meetings of the society.*

ART. 18. There shall be ordinary and extraordinary reunions of the society; the former will be annually convoked for the month of January and the latter whenever the directory shall judge convenient or when twelve or more members shall request it, notice being given in the papers five days in advance and the object of the meeting being set forth.

ART. 19. Twenty members shall constitute a quorum of the general assembly in addition to those members of the directory who may be present and if this number does not assemble, another meeting shall be called in the papers, it being stated that the subject will be decided by the number of members who may appear.

Sole paragraph.—The reunions of which Article 8 treats are excepted from the above dispositions; these reunions can never deliberate unless the number of members specified in this article shall be present.

ART. 20. The ordinary general reunion in January has for its object:

§ 1. The presentation of the statement of the directory, the annual balance of accounts and the opinion of the committee of examination; the latter after being discussed and approved will be published in two journals in connection with the statement.

§ 2. The election of the directory and of the committee of examination of accounts and statement, which will be done by secret ballot and by an absolute majority of the votes, the committee being composed of three members, whose substitutes will be the next in the number of votes.

ART. 21. At the general reunions extraordinary will be resolved only and exclusively the business for which they have been convoked.

§ 1. At these reunions there may be presented for the consideration of the general assembly any other subject whatever of interest to the society but it can only be discussed and decided at a subsequent meeting especially called.

§ 2. It is expressly prohibited to treat at general reunions of subjects foreign to the objects of the society.

CHAPTER VIII.—*Elections.*

ART. 22. The elections will be held in January at the meeting of the general assembly and by secret ballot, an absolute majority being necessary.

ART. 23. The office of treasurer can only be held by one who is established in a business of his own or who possesses real estate.

ART. 24. In case of the declination by any one of the office of director the next in vote will take his place, and if he will not accept a new election will be proceeded with for the vacant office, except in case of a director of the month who can be named by the directory.

CHAPTER IX.—*Provisioning the asylum.*

ART. 25. For the provisioning of the asylum the procurador shall invite proposals through the papers for the necessary articles, separately, which proposals should be addressed to the directory in sealed envelopes, the proposer signing the contract which shall be accepted; such articles as shall not be of good condition and quality will be rejected, the furnisher being obliged to replace them in conformity with a clause in the contract.

CHAPTER X.—*General dispositions.*

ART. 26. To the inmates shall be given an occupation suitable to their condition and from the profits of their completed work there will be credited to them 50 per cent in a special account current, which amount will be delivered to them when they shall be in a condition to leave the asylum, being able to withdraw with the consent of the directory, 2$000 Rs. per month; the remaining 50 per cent will revert

favor of the patrimony of the asylum, as also the whole of the accounts current of those who shall die.

Sole paragraph.—For those inmates who are not able to work, the directory will establish, whenever they see fit, a monthly allowance of 2$ 000 rs.

ART. 27. Whenever any one of the inmates, by reason of his bad state of health, shall require medical treatment, he shall be conveyed to the Charity Hospital, there to remain until he shall be in a condition to return to the asylum, except in a case where it might not be proper to transport the invalid, in which event he should be treated in the asylum itself, being placed in a separate apartment.

ART. 28. The inmates will be subject to the rules of the internal management, which rules will be adopted annually by the directory.

ART. 29. The number of the inmates shall not exceed that which the directory shall decide to be suitable to the accommodations of the building, care being taken that the hygiene of the asylum is not prejudiced by crowding; in this case, the society will furnish an amount indicated by the directory for maintenance in a private house.

ART. 30. The directory is charged with the proper placing of the minor children of paupers, which they bring with them; when, however, this can not be done in consequence of their tender age, they will also be received in the asylum.

ART. 31. No person can be admitted into the asylum, nor receive assistance from the society in a private house, unless he prove that he has had a permanent residence in this city for one year.

Rio Grande, February 7, 1886.

A. C. CORREA LEITE,
President.
BENJAMIN FLORES,
Secretary.

INTERNAL REGULATIONS OF THE ASYLUM FOR MENDICANTS.

ARTICLE 1. The interior officers of the asylum shall consist of an inspector or guard, and of a female servant, whose duties are as follows:

§ 1. The inspector shall preserve the cleanliness of the building and of the dormitories; he shall maintain necessary order, and shall distribute the food and assist at the daily meals.

§ 2. He shall advise the director of the month of any infraction of the rules, and shall give notice of anything that may be necessary.

§ 3. It shall be his duty to reside in the asylum, to have under his care and responsibility all the utensils of the service, and the property of the asylum; to keep the clothes, earthenware, and utensils, giving them out and receiving them on account.

§ 4 To observe and fulfill the instructions of the director of the month or his substitute.

§ 5. To have the clothes of the inmates washed, and keep a list of those sent out and returned.

§ 6. To keep the groceries under key, and to give them to the cook in the necessary proportions.

§ 7. Not to give entrance into the asylum to any one who may seek it, except by order of the procurador or administrator.

§ 8. Not to leave the establishment without consent of the director.

§ 9. To see that the meals are served at fixed hours, and not to allow the inmates to go out without the consent of the directory.

ART. 2. The female servant shall follow the same regulations with regard to the female inmates as above given for the guard, besides helping the cook.

CLEANLINESS.

ART. 3. All the inmates are obliged to take two baths, lukewarm or cold, per week, viz, on Thursdays and Sundays.

ART. 4. The men will have their hair cut and beards trimmed on the 1st day of every month.

ART. 5. The inmates will be furnished with such clothes and shoes as may be necessary for cleanliness and decency, and changes of shirts and bed clothes every Sunday, or before, if necessary.

Sole paragraph.—The inmates of both sexes shall wear a uniform garment whenever they appear in public.

MEALS.

ART. 6. Meals will be served at the following hours:

§ 1. From November to April, breakfast at 7 o'clock in the morning, and during the other six months at 8 o'clock, consisting of bread of 120 grammes and coffee.

§ 2. Dinner during the first months named at 12 o'clock, during the other months at 1 o'clock, consisting of soup; four days in the week, boiled beef with vegetables and pastry; three days, roast beef, rice or potatoes. On one of the three days fish may be substituted for meat. For desert on four days there will be oranges, and on three days bananas. The soup should be prepared with the broth of meat, and should be varied during the week.

§ 3. Supper will be served at 6 o'clock in summer and at 5 o'clock in winter, consisting of matté (Paraguayan tea) and 120 grammes of bread.

RECREATION.

ART. 7. After breakfast and dinner the inmates may walk for an hour in the garden.

WORK.

ART. 8. The men on work days should engage in occupations suitable to their condition and aptitude. The women should also occupy themselves in sewing, sweeping, iron the clothes of the establishment, and in short, with whatever they are fitted to do, without prejudice to their health.

RISING AND RETIRING.

ART. 9. At the stroke of the waking bell, given by the guard, which will be during the months from November to April at 5 o'clock in the morning, the inmates, except invalids, will be obliged to rise. In the months from May to October they will rise at 7 o'clock.

ART. 10. The stroke of the retiring bell will be given at 7 p. m. in the winter, and at 8 o'clock p. m. in the summer, it being the duty of the guard to see that all duly retire at that hour and the lights put out.

SEPARATE APARTMENTS.

ART. 11. The house on the corner where the asylum is established will be used by the men, and the house immediately adjoining by the women, it being the duty of the inmates to keep themselves in their respective departments.

GENERAL RULE.

ART. 12. On Sundays those inmates who are able will go in a body to mass in one of the churches of the city, except those who are not Catholics, who will have the right to attend the services of the church to which they belong.

A. C. CORREA LEITE,
President.

BENJAMIN FLORES,
Secretary.

BRITISH GUIANA.

REPORT BY CONSUL CARROLL, OF DEMERARA.

(1) There are no tramps proper in British Guiana—that is, no class of able-bodied men moving about from place to place, living upon what they can procure. There are numbers of beggars, however, living in the vicinage of the city of Georgetown, who make a practice of going the rounds, as it were, on Saturdays, to whom certain persons invariably contribute about two cents each. This class is composed of persons afflicted by disease of various genera, some being lepers, others deformed, others blind or semiblind, etc. All trade upon their infirmities. Few, if any, are able to work.

(2) The public relief of the poor is administered by the poor-law commission, which is generally composed of clergymen of the various denominations, the fund being provided by the Government. Most of the churches, too, make collections for the poor of their respective congregations.

(3) Occasionally complaints are made as to beggars, whereupon a few are taken to the almshouse, but as there appears to be no law compelling their detention therein, they take the first opportunity of leaving. No efforts appear to be made to suppress or stop begging, nor does it appear to be unlawful, as the Government of Her Majesty is said to object to anything like a vagrancy law, lest it should descriminate, or appear to discriminate, against the colored people. Several attempts have been made in this direction since emancipation, but all ordinances to preclude begging, idleness, loafing, wandering, etc., from place to place are said to have been disallowed by the home Government upon the ground that invidious distinctions were made, as they could only apply to colored men.

(4) Nothing is being done to make beggars work. It would be futile if it were, as they are unable to work as a rule. At the almshouse basket-making is carried on to a limited extent, but the inmates thereof are old, weak, or suffering from chronic and incurable diseases and can accomplish little.

(5) Indiscriminate charity to beggars in this colony appears to be very inimical to the community. A number of people suffering from various diseases, including leprosy and syphilis, are allowed to wander about the streets and pavements where hundreds of people in bare feet and legs are walking; their putrid sores are often exuding or evolving noxious and offensive effluvia, which can not but be injurious. The hovels in which they sleep are sources of disease, and the people with whom they come in contact must suffer more or less.

When the people in question are taken to the almshouse they are isolated, kept from cohabiting with their wives, cleansed, and their

sores regularly dressed. This, however, is repugnant to their feelings, and at the first opportunity of getting away they resume their rags, filth, and all manner of unspeakable things.

(6) No experiments have been made as to the best system of distributing public and private charities in this colony. The freedmen or colored people are said to have little or no self-respect or shame, and beg as a matter of course. A stranger is readily impressed with this attribute on their part.

(7) There has been nothing done to prevent the intermarriage of paupers so far as known.

PHILIP CARROLL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Demerara, June 14, 1892.

COLOMBIA.

COLON.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL ROBINSON.

(1) That class of vagrants designated "tramps," unless it become[illegible] criminal, is not controlled or regulated in this province.

(2) There is an association called The Colon Benevolent Society, [illegible] supported entirely by private aid, through which charity is dispensed [illegible] to the sick and destitute. Its resources are, however, too limited to [illegible] accomplish much good or evil.

(5) These effects in this peculiar community, composed almost wholly [illegible] of the colored races, would be difficult to determine. Want of the [illegible] absolute sort is little known, although poverty is the rule. The climatic and other conditions are such that suffering is rare.

(6) In the absence of any system, it is of course, impossible to say [illegible] what has proved to be the best.

(7) No such efforts have been made. Marriage among the masses [illegible] is practically unknown. There is always a considerable number of [illegible] what may be called drifters, of different nationalities, who apply for [illegible] aid at this consulate. These are for the most part, no doubt, tramps, [illegible] although now and then there may be an unfortunate of a better grade. [illegible] As our Government makes no provision for the relief of any except [illegible] destitute seamen, it is impossible to help all these applicants, although [illegible] in most cases they are treated kindly, referred to the dispensing officer [illegible] of the local benevolent society mentioned in reply to No. 2, and offered [illegible] good advice, which is, no doubt, in most cases considered cheap.

TRACY ROBINSON,
Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Colon, April 15, 1892.

PANAMA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL ADAMSON.

(1) On the 3d of June, 1886, the civil and military governor of the department of Panama issued a decree to the effect that "the individuals who are found in the cities of Panama and Colon, and in the villages along the line between them, without any trade, profession, or known calling, who have been twice indicted for crimes or arrested for police offenses, shall have fifteen days allowed them in which to leave the department. If they remain after that time they shall be arrested and put to work at cleaning and repairing the streets and other municipal services that may be necessary, and they shall have a daily allowance of food of the value of 30 cents."

While this law, if rigorously executed, would have materially abated the "tramp" nuisance, it was for several years seldom enforced.

During the flush times of canal work, this isthmus swarmed with vagabonds who pretended that they came to seek work on the canal, but that they could not get work because they were white, or that they had lost employment through sickness. As the smallest coin in circulation here is that of 10 cents, these vagabonds could make more by begging than by working, and the charitable disposition of the people fostered their idle habits. The Sisters of Charity, at the house which their order maintains here, furnished two meals a day gratuitously to all comers, and I have watched certain individual members of the order of "tramps" who for three years have regularly fed at the table of the nuns and apparently have done no work in that time, their clothing being obtained by begging.

(2) In reply to the question, "What are the methods employed for the distribution of alms," I have to say that if this question presupposes some law on the subject, my answer would be that, until recently, the Saturday of each week was the day on which any person might solicit alms; and begging on other days was nominally only permitted to licensed beggars who wore a certain badge of their calling. As a matter of fact, beggars went around daily, but Saturday was their day *par excellence*. Of course the begging fraternity soon learned where their cries were heeded and where they were not. At some houses each applicant would received 10 cents, or a certain few would be given that sum. Those who were in the regular habit of giving alms generally put out a certain sum, according to their means, say from $1 to $10, and when that sum was exhausted the late comers were refused. Those who could not afford to be so liberal provided themselves with penny buns, or small loaves of bread, candles, bananas, etc., which they gave in lieu of money.

The alms of the bishop of Panama were distributed at 10 o'clock in the morning of each Saturday, at which times I have often counted the recipients, the number of whom varied from eighty to a hundred.

(3) The annoyance caused to residents of Panama by the beggars, and the ill impression made upon foreigners passing through the city by the sight of so many wretched objects, led some public-spirited persons, about a year ago, to utilize certain charitable bequests and to augment the same by soliciting the aid of the charitable people of Panama in preparing a home for the destitute, which home is called the "Asylo Bolivar," or Bolivar Asylum. It is to all intents and purposes an almshouse. The municipality contributes annually to its funds the equivalent of about $325 in United States coin. The lottery company assists materially, and the balance of the expenses is made up by the contributions of charitable persons who subscribe a monthly sum. On the opening of this almshouse the municipal government forbade street begging, and took measures to remove to the asylum all persons known to be entirely destitute and unable to work.

For several weeks a close watch was kept upon the able-bodied tramps, mostly foreigners, who frequented the tables of the Sisters of Charity, and those who were found begging there were subjected to the penalties of the decree quoted in the commencement of this report. That vigilance has been relaxed of late, and there are still a number of vagrants here who prefer the freedom of the streets, even with the risk of arrest, to the discipline of the Bolivar Asylum.

(4) The only efforts that are being made here to convert beggars and tramps into self-supporting members of society are found in the discipline of the Asylo Bolivar, which includes some work by the male inmates in the cleaning of the house, the improvement of the grounds, and some trifling work in the garden. Several of the female paupers have been taught the art of making Panama hats, which are sold for the benefit of the house; and some wash the clothes of those who can not do any work. Of the 184 inmates of the asylum, when I visited it recently, a majority were unfit for labor.

(5) To the fifth question it appears to me that there can be but one answer, namely, that the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities tends to pauperize the people.

(6) In answering the sixth question I presume that it was intended that each consular officer should base his reply on facts gathered in, or conclusions arrived at, from the study of the existing conditions in his own district, and not to write an essay based on what he had observed in other countries and what he has read of the writings of eminent sociologists. In that case there is nothing here on which to base a reply.

(7) So far as I can discover no efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers. In point of fact, a majority of the family unions here are illicit, and it could hardly be otherwise. The Roman Catholic religion is the religion of the state and the marriage fees of the church are high. It is true that there is a form of civil marriage but the clergy denounce it as worthless, and although the law recognizes it, yet if either of the parties to a civil marriage should afterwards

choose to marry somebody else according to the rites of the church, the law decrees that the latter religious rite invalidates the former civil marriage!

The result of the prevailing illegitimacy is that in many cases the father does nothing for his children who grow up, only too frequently, to be an addition to the pauper class, and not having had a parental example of chastity they go on increasing the population without adding to the material strength of the country.

THOMAS ADAMSON,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Panama, May 16, 1892.

DUTCH GUIANA.

REPORT BY CONSUL WYNDHAM, OF PARAMARIBO.

Article 214 of the local code of criminal procedure describes as vagrants all persons who have no fixed abode and have no means of subsistence, and who are not in the habit of plying any trade or profession. Such persons are punishable with imprisonment of from one to six months.

The distribution of alms is undertaken principally by the poor-relief committees of the different church denominations, each exclusively to the members of its own church. No Episcopal church is established in the colony, and the poor of that denomination are mostly dependent on the American and English consuls and on their fellow-countrymen and women.

There is beside this a large subsidy to the different churches for the support of orphans. There also exists the Government charitable institution for indoor relief, called "Landsgrond Boniface," where, without distinction, paupers are admitted and cared for to the extent of the available accommodation.

There are no reformatories for beggars and vagrants in this colony, the paupers in the "Landsgrond" being allowed to go out and beg to add to their Government rations. The result is that begging is not prohibited, but is virtually overlooked, and the town is full of beggars.

There is no system in force, the only principle being that each person does what is in his or her power to alleviate distress according to individual ideas and feelings. No effort is made to elevate the recipients of charity from their position; they are not offered employment, and are only encouraged to seek it by being provided with poor lodging and only the absolutely necessary food to keep them alive. No reformatories or institutions exist for their eventual rehabilitation as good and useful members of society.

Marriage is allowed to all persons, paupers included, who conform to the requirements of article 82, and following, of the civil code.

There is plenty of work for every man, woman, and child that can and will work in this colony, and on fair wages. The aged, blind, and weakly are largely subscribed for, but unfortunately the funds subscribed are not always appropriated to the purpose for which they are given, but are by some of the religious denominations capitalized and placed out on mortgages, the interest only being given to the poor, for whom the subscriptions were originally intended.

W. WYNDHAM,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Paramaribo, May 18, 1892.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

REPORT BY CONSUL LASAR.

(1) No regulations here for tramps or any other class of vagrants.

(2) By a committee consisting of private citizens, without distinction of sex.

(3) Begging is not known here.

(5) The little amount of alms dispensed here seems to have no evil effects.

(6) Finds no application in the Falkland Islands.

(7) Have no paupers here.

HENRY S. LASAR,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Port Stanley, Falkland Islands, April 20, 1892.

PERU.

REPORT BY CONSUL DAUGHERTY, OF CALLAO.

(1) Peru has no class of vagrants except on the coast, corresponding with the "tramps" of the United States. The habitable and cultivated valleys are separated by long stretches of inhospitable wastes of barren mountain and plain, to pass over which tries sufficiently the well-mounted and well-supplied traveler and offer no temptation to lazy and indolent men on foot, searching rather for charity than for work. The railroads offer no encouragement either, since people who do not have tickets are not permitted on the trains at all. The coast of Peru, and indeed the whole west coast of South America, swarms with wh

re known as beach-combers, men who drift here in vessels from all arts of the world and, losing courage and strength and manliness hrough drink and other vices (mostly the former), become next to worthess as seamen, if not entirely so. They do odd jobs here and there hen too pressing want compels work, and beg about the streets. ome of them camp in parties in the brushy low grounds in the neighorhood of Callao and Lima, visiting both places during the day, and arrying back to camp what they have succeeded in begging during the ay. There are not so many of these, but they are the nearest aproach to the tramp of the United States. Most of the beech-combers leep in vacant houses, in railroad cars, and in deserted buildings that ffer a roof.

The coast towns are full, too, of native beggars, who are permitted to sk alms on the streets and to go from house to house every Saturday. o common is this custom that Saturday has come to be known as begar's day. Alms are not asked in a persistent or offensive way either, ut the open palm of want meets one on the most frequented streets at lmost on every step on Saturdays. The police have orders to "pursue" e unworthy beggars—those who are strong and able to work—and is surveillance results in some healthful restraint.

The Chinese population support a good hospital at Bella Vista, a nall station at the outskirts of Callao, and one also in Lima, where ey take care of their destitute and sick at their own expense. The oor of the Chinese take advantage of the permission in regard to beging on Saturday, and join the beggars of all classes and nationalities the grand rounds of almsasking on that day.

(2) At Lima and Callao public charities are dispensed through the eneficencia, which is a corporation intrusted with that duty, and deves its revenues from a tonnage tax on vessels, the profits arising om the weekly drawings of the public lottery, from burial charges, nd from rents of property which is purchased from time to time out f the surplus accruing from these sources. Out of this fund the hositals are conducted, schools are sustained for orphan children who ave no means of support, and the public charities are dispensed rough the various stations provided, where the poor may call for food nd attention.

At Callao there is a very good school for the girls of the destitute, and t Lima there is a school for boys of this class, where they receive an lementary education and are taught some self-supporting trade.

(3) The methods employed for the distribution of alms is explained above reply. The destitute sick are attended to at the "free ward" the hospitals, and the hungry are fed at the stations alluded to in ply to question 1. Begging is prohibited by law, but, in the presence such pleading want, those known to be worthy of charity are peritted to beg under the restrictions mentioned. No continuous effort is ade to suppress, but only to restrict to the most worthy.

(4) As to efforts for the conversion of "beggars" and "tramps" to self-supporting members of society, the finances of the country are not in condition to warrant public expenditures further than those mentioned, in experiments of this sort. In the interior there are no public provisions for taking care of the poor. Those who fall into want must depend upon family connections or friends, or the charities dispensed by the church; and some of the poor drift to the coast to feed upon the crumbs that are offered there.

(5) The charities, as I have observed them, both at the hospitals and public stations, are so stinted and pinched as to offer no inducement to such as the ordinary "tramp" of the United States, nor do I think that they encourage those who have strength and opportunity to become self-supporting, to become idlers and recipients of the bestowals coming through the "Beneficencia." The destitute are not cared for in any particular, in a way to compare with that accorded the sick and destitute of the United States as a rule, but, considering the revenues at disposal here, it is perhaps well up to the limits of the abilities of those who dispense the charities. The support of the poor who are able to work is discountenanced and discouraged as much as may be, but the languishing condition of trade and the industries necessitates great liberality and more or less laxity of the rules.

(6) As before stated, the country is confined by financial necessities to that method which will assure relief from present needs of sufferers, rather than to experiments as to the best methods for elevating the unfortunate. Those who beg publicly are mostly the old and decrepit, the blind, the lame, the legless, and the armless, and for such as these there is no prospect at present for elevation, or even a betterment of their condition. They shuffle along in the shadow of despair, if not in its very blackness, and if they hope, to the observer it appears like hoping absolutely against hope.

(7) There is no restraint upon marriage, except that arising from the charges by the church for solemnizing nuptials. I am told that even beggars may marry if charity pays for the ceremony. It does not appear, however, that the church gives any encouragement to such marriages by remitting the charges, but it is not uncommon among certain classes to ignore the church altogether, and live as man and wife without the sanction of the church.

A. J. DAUGHERTY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Callao, March 24, 1892.

URUGUAY.

REPORT BY CONSUL HILL, MONTEVIDEO.

(1) Vagrants are taken in by the police, and, if crippled or sick or sane, handed over to the "Comision de Caridad y Beneficencia," which nds them to the hospital, the poorhouse, or the other asylums, as the se may require. If in good health, they are brought before a judge ıd, generally, put into prison for two or three months.

(2) The distribution of alms is entirely of a private character. There e some societies which make it their object to look after people in ed, and to supply them with articles of food, medicine, etc.

(3) Until lately the country has been pretty free of beggars. In re-rd to punishing them, they are treated the same as vagrants. In nsequence of the crisis through which this country is passing va-ancy and begging have lately become more frequent, and the asylums der the care of the "Comision de Caridad" are crowded. The ter has, therefore, only a few weeks ago, suggested to the Govern-ınt to pass a law prohibiting the landing of paupers under heavy es on the steamship companies trying to do so, and the obligation to ırn them to the country from which they came; and, further, only to ve such persons admitted to the asylums as are citizens of this Re-blic or have lived in the same for some length of time, or are in need public assistance through accident or similar reasons.

(4) No efforts have been made in this direction, as there has been no use for such until lately.

(5) Indiscriminate almsgiving* tends here, as it does everywhere else, encourage professional begging.

(6) The public charities are, as said before, under the charge of the Comision de Caridad y Beneficencia," the honorary members of which e prominent citizens appointed by the Government. This commis-on derives the income necessary for its work from a lottery, called Lotería de Caridad," the only one lawfully authorized in this coun-y. There are — drawings during the year. The proceedings are well nd conscientiously managed. The net income from this lottery for ıe last years was from $400,000 to $600,000 per annum.

Under the management of said commission are: (*a*) The "Hospital e Caridad" (Charity Hospital), (*b*) The National Insane Asylum, c) The Poor House, (*d*) The Foundling and Orphan Asylum, (*e*) The mallpox Hospital, and (*f*) The "Asilos Maternales."

(*a*) Charity Hospital. On January 1, 1890, there were 462 patients this hospital; during the year 6,738 entered, 5,708 were dismissed as ıred, etc., and 635 died. Of the 6,378 patients admitted in 1890, 1,491 ıre of Uruguayan nationality, 1,770 Spaniards, 1,683 Italians, and the st of other nationalities.

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*To street beggars.

(*b*) The inmates of the Insane Asylum on January 1, 1891, consisted of 424 men and 305 women.

(*c*) The Poor House contained on December 31, 1890, 334 inmates.

(*d*) Foundling and Orphan Asylum. There were 357 foundlings and 157 orphans in this asylum on January 1, 1890. During the year 276 foundlings and 69 orphans were admitted; 144 foundlings and 2 orphans died, 88 were reclaimed, 48 adopted, so that the number of children in the asylum on January 1, 1891, consisted of 388 foundlings and 189 orphans.

(*e*) In the Smallpox Hospital 108 patients were treated during 1890, of whom 22 died, 74 were dismissed as cured, 12 patients remaining under treatment in the hospital on January 1, 1891.

(*f*) The "Asilos Maternales," of which there are three in Montevideo, contained on January 1, 1890, 1,980 children.

These children are either left entirely to the care of the asylum by their parents or tutors, to be sheltered, fed, clothed, and educated there, or they are brought there in the morning and retired late in the afternoon, receiving two meals in the asylum and schooling. Children are received from the age of 2 years. The boys are kept until they are about 10 years, the girls until they are about 12 years of age, able to earn their own living if necessary, for which purpose they have received a regular common schooling and a good moral education.

The system of education is that of Froebel's.

No remuneration whatsoever is taken from the parents or tutors of the children, and no difference as to nationality is made.

The asylums are directed by nuns.

There is besides the "Escuela de Arte y Oficios," where parents or tutors may bring their boys whom they can not manage at home. This is somewhat of a house of correction, but also under the care of the "Comision de Caridad." There are artisan shops, such as a printing office, lithographer's, etc., in this school, and the boys are instructed in one of these trades.

It will thus be seen that the "Comision de Caridad" has quite a large work under its care which is attended to in a very creditable way.

(7) No efforts have been yet in this direction.

FRANK D. HILL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Montevideo, June 25, 1892.

VENEZUELA.

LAGUAYRA.

REPORT BY CONSUL HANNA.

In Laguayra, during times of ordinary commercial activity, there is o class answering to what is known in the States as "tramps." There employment of some kind for all males who are able to work, and early all able-bodied men earn enough money in some way to feed and lothe themselves and their families; and, since the poor people live ery cheaply, a small sum of money will go a great ways in keeping iem, their principal food being fish and fruit. They wear but little othing and that of the cheapest sort, and their houses are only inended to keep out the sun and rain, there being no cold to provide ainst. This country seems to be always prosperous in times of peace, ving plenty of work for the laborer. In times of revolution, when isiness is not active, the unemployed are sent into the army, and are ovided for in that way. Sick persons are taken care of at hospitals hich are located in all the cities and towns of this consular district. iey are kept at public expense. Old people and cripples who have means of providing for themselves are assisted by the merchants of ch city and town, who set aside a certain amount each week to disibute among cripples and old people who call regularly each Saturay and receive something at each store and office in the precinct in hich they live. I have never heard of any suffering in this district n account of poverty. This climate favors the poor and is merciful to ie unfortunate.

PHILIP C. HANNA,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Laguayra, June 1, 1892.

MARACAIBO.

REPORT BY CONSUL PLUMACHER.

(1) There are no tramps in this consular district.

(2) There is no systematized method, either on the part of the government or by means of societies. Alms giving is indiscriminate and ndividuals according to the ability and benevolence of the giver.

(3) Street begging, and from door to door, has always been very ioticeable, and is almost a recognized "institution" in this city, the nerchants distributing every Saturday coppers among the many appliants.

The mendicants, however, do not confine their calls to Saturday lone, and at times become such a plague that the newspapers are

filled with protests and appeals to the government. When this happens, the authorities give notice that stringent measures are to be taken at once, and resolve that all deserving mendicants are to be registered and furnished with a certificate. Anyone found begging and unprovided with this document is to be handed over to the police and punished, as there are no doubt many lazy impostors who, in some well-known cases, are infinitely better off than many of those who give them alms.

Unfortunately, however, the stringent measures are never taken, and the resolve of the authorities ends with the passage of the municipal resolution, the result being that the momentary agitation of the question dies out until the abuse becomes again too flagrant, when the same programme is repeated, and this continues on *ad infinitum.*

(4) No efforts are being made to convert beggars and tramps to self-supporting members of society.

(5) There are no public charities, that is, for alms-giving, although Maracaibo is famous for its free hospital and asylum organization. The spirit of the people is essentially charitable to a high degree, and private alms-giving is exercised indiscriminately, the effect, to a certain extent, being no doubt bad, inasmuch, as already noted, it tends to encourage idleness and imposture.

The subjects of questions 6 and 7 have never been taken into consideration in this district. It will be remembered that poverty in this country, however absolute it may be, is a very different thing from the same condition in other climates. In this consular district, for example, it is summer the year round; there is no month during which the earth does not produce; the rivers and lakes team with fish, and the forests with game, while with the expenditure of a dollar a poor man's wardrobe may be supplied for a twelve-month. Moreover, it is scarcely deemed derogatory to solicit alms, and the professional beggar has a social standing much superior to that of his confrère in the United States.

E. H. PLUMACHER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Maracaibo, March 18, 1892.

WEST INDIES.

BRITISH WEST INDIES.

THE BAHAMAS.

REPORT BY CONSUL M'LAIN, OF NASSAU.

The Bahamas, I am happy to say, do not possess that class of va- grants designated generally as tramps, and there is therefore no call for any regulations to control them, and none exist in this colony.

The only public method of distributing alms is by means of the asylum or almshouse.

There is a law on the statute books by which begging in public is prohibited, but it is to all intents and purposes a dead letter, as I ever heard of any attempt to enforce it. Begging is very prevalent n the streets of this city, especially so of strangers who visit Nassau uring the winter months. There is no attempt to suppress it.

I never heard of any direct or special efforts being made to convert eggars and tramps into self-supporting members of society. It is kely that church organizations and some temperance societies are oing something in this direction, but if so it is done so quietly as not o be attracting special attention.

I think any indiscriminate dispensation of private charity is bad, and isiting strangers who yield to the importunities of beggars, as is often he case here, are largely responsible for this growing evil of begging.

In conclusion, I would say that there is very little pinching poverty n this colony, and what there is is provided for by a general almshouse, upported by the colonial government, its management being very imple and much after the style of our county almshouses at home, so here is little to be learned here to assist in the judicious dispensation of our charities at home.

THOS. J. MCLAIN, JR.,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nassau, New Providence, March 23, 1892.

BERMUDA.

REPORT BY CONSUL SULLIVAN, OF HAMILTON.

(1) Under an act designated "the vagrant act, 1869," vagrants or "tramps" being convicted are liable to be kept at hard labor for any period not exceeding three calendar months. "Tramp" in the sense in which the word is used in the United States is unknown here. There are no "tramps," and in proportion to the population the number of vagrants is very small.

(2) Parish vestries through the overseer of the poor are legally authorized and required to distribute alms in the form of food and clothing to paupers. The word "alms" as used here refers only to food and clothing, and the law strictly prohibits parochial officers from giving money to paupers. Under the vagrant act penalties are imposed for the punishment and suppression of begging.

(3) There being few of either class here, no efforts are made to convert "beggars" and "tramps" to self-supporting members of society.

(4) Public charities are not dispensed indiscriminately, but carefully and economically, after due investigation. Indiscriminate dispensation of private charities causes and promotes drunkenness.

(5) The only system of distribution of charities here is that mentioned above—by the overseer of the poor. A home for paupers, immediately under the control of the overseer, is provided by the parochial authorities. Paupers seldom or never intermarry.

(6) Bermuda is singularly fortunate. While there are not very many rich, there are not very many poor people on the islands. The colored people, who comprise the bulk of the population—the last census, that of 1891, showing 9,323 colored to 5,690 white—are generally sober, honest, and industrious, and make the most of their limited opportunities. Under a compulsory education law, they are fairly educated, and the rising generation can all read and write. They are a shining and splendid proof of what education may accomplish in elevating the moral tone of any people. They have too much self-respect to become beggars. This partially, in fact in a great measure, explains why there are no "tramps," but few vagrants, and very little begging in Bermuda.

W. K. SULLIVAN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hamilton, April 9, 1892.

JAMAICA.

REPORT BY CONSUL ESTES.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

In Jamaica, taken as a whole, there is not found that class of "tramps" well defined in the United States and other countries of large area. The habits and disposition of the black people (who, as is well known, largely predominate), as well as the prodigality of nature and the limited area of this country, tend to prevent any such well-defined class from being formed. That alms are frequently solicited is quite true, but from all outward appearances it is by the old, feeble, and afflicted. The law, if judiciously administered, puts sufficient controlling power into the hands of inspectors of the poor to prevent the life of an habitual tramp or that of an aspirant for such position from

becoming at all pleasant or desirable; and as there are 41 inspectors and assistant inspectors of the poor distributed over an area of only 4,193 square miles, serving a population of 640,000, a person undertaking the precarious vocation of a "professional tramp" would soon fall within the meshes of the law, which provides, among other things, for the punishment of begging in certain cases as being the acts of a rogue and vagabond; and those found wandering abroad or in disreputable places without any visible means of subsistence, and persons wandering abroad and endeavoring by the exposure of wounds or deformities to obtain alms, also persons endeavoring to obtain alms or charitable contributions of any nature under any false or fraudulent pretense, and also any person who shall willfully abandon his wife or children, whereby they shall be left dependent for support on public or private charity e all defined by law to be "rogues and vagabonds," and it is made the duty of all constables (and every neighborhood is liberally provided with these officers), under provision for their punishment for such failure, to apprehend all such characters and take them before a justice of the peace to be dealt with, and any other person is authorized to arrest and carry such offenders before a justice of the peace. It is, however, provided that no person shall be punished for the offense of begging unless he could by his labor or other means, or by parochial funds appropriated for that purpose, have been provided with the necessaries of life. And to prevent the "professional tramp" from becoming a charge upon the poor funds it is provided that an applicant is not entitled to relief unless he is wholly destitute of the means of subsistence, and is, at the same time, from mental or physical cause, unable to earn his own maintenance. To this provision there are two exceptions:

(1) Under exceptional circumstances such as droughts, epidemics and such like causes, when relief may be distributed.

(2) Temporary relief may be granted by an inspector of the poor when he shall have reason to believe that the applicant's life is in danger from starvation, "anything else in the law to the contrary notwithstanding;" and in such case the inspector is allowed twenty-four hours for investigation before returning an answer to any application for relief, and even then the inspector has the power to decide in what manner the relief shall be expended, and thus he is enabled in all doubtful cases to offer relief in the poor-house, and the result is that those relieved on this island at the expense of the "poor rates" are destitute, and for the most part aged, infirm, blind, or suffering from chronic or hereditary disease, or destitute children.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

The distribution of alms, or the "poor relief," is intrusted to inspectors and assistant inspectors of poor, acting under the authority of the parochial boards. These officers, who have their respective districts

or parishes, act in the first instance upon their own responsibility within the terms of the law and their instructions until the next meeting of the parochial board, which confirms, alters or reverses the action of the inspector, as the case may be. In cases where relief is confirmed by the parochial board the inspector continues to give it until otherwise directed, or representation either at the instance of the inspector or from information supplied by him or on the knowledge of members.

The inspector of the poor is appointed by and his remuneration fixed by the parochial board, subject to the approval of the board of supervision. Each of the fourteen parishes has its own eleemosynary or parochial board which exercises jurisdiction therein, all of which are under the general jurisdiction of the board of supervision, whose jurisdiction is coextensive with the island, and to whom appeals may be taken, by any person aggrieved, from the action of the parochial board.

The several reports of the board of supervision, which are made annually to the governor, show that it carefully scrutinizes the expenditures and acts of the inspectors and also the conduct of the parochial boards.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

It does not come within the province of the board of supervision or other legal authorities (except so far as the coersive effects of the penal laws heretofore mentioned go) to take any direct steps to convert "beggars" and "tramps" into self-supporting members of society. The board of supervision and its subordinate boards and inspectors deal only with the administration of poor relief to those entitled thereto under the law. However, the wholesome influence exercised by the restriction of relief to such persons, and the refusal of it in most cases to the few applicants who are habitual beggars and tramps no doubt has an indirect salutary influence in converting them into self-supporting members of society.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

There is not such an "indiscriminate dispensation" of public or private charities in this island as to make the effects of the same noticeable.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEM.

The prevailing opinion here is that the plans and methods above outlined are the best; and that in only bestowing aid where it is a necessity, and continuing the same only so long as the necessity exists, does more, by throwing the recipient upon his own resources, towards his ultimate rehabilitation as a good and self-supporting member of society, than would anything else.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

The only efforts that have been made tending to prevent intermarriage of paupers is the strict separation of the sexes in the poorhouses; and I may be permitted to say here, that but little effort is required to

prevent their marriage in a legal sense, as they do not seem inclined to invest their cohabitation with that dignity, illicit cohabitation not only on the part of the pauper class, but of these more favorably situated being exceedingly common, upon the ground of economy. A large number of the lower class live together during their natural lives, and raise families without any civil or ecclesias tical marriage, it being considered more in accordance with social customs than to marry without giving a wedding breakfast, which many of them are unable to do.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT.

I can not conclude this report without acknowledging my great indebtedness to Robert Johnstone, esq., secretary of the board of supervision of the poor relief, for most of the information upon which the same is based, which he very courteously and promptly supplied.

W. R. ESTES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Kingston, Jamaica, April 21, 1892.

ST. CHRISTOPHER.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT PARKER.

(1) There are no "tramps" on the island of St. Christopher, such as are known by that name in other countries.

(2) Alms are distributed in two different ways: (1) In the towns of Basse Terre and Sandy Point and the villages of "Old Road" and Dieppe Bay the relief is given weekly in the shape of a money payment, not exceeding 30 cents per week to each person, by what is known as the "poor law board;" (2) in the villages of Cayon and Nichola Town, according to the above ratio, alms are distributed by the medical officers of these districts.

(3) Begging is punished by imprisonment not exceeding one month or a fine of £5. Fraudulent begging is punished by imprisonment not to exceed three months.

(4) There is no general system recognized here except moral suasion, with but little success.

(5) The effects of indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities is to induce them to beg more.

(6) The system adopted by the government of this island seems to be the best. There are no professional beggars. The people who beg are really in want.

(7) The beggars and paupers do not intermarry on this island. The beggars are old and crippled people.

STEPHEN W. PARKER,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
St. Christopher, July 30, 1892.

TRINIDAD.

REPORT BY CONSUL PIERCE.

(1) The class of vagrants generally designated "tramps" is not in existence here.

(2) There is no systematic method employed here for the distribution of alms, except that by common consent beggars ply their calling in the streets to a greater extent on Saturdays than on other days of the week.

(3) By the local law begging is made an offense punishable by imprisonment, but the law seems to go unenforced.

(4) No special efforts are being made to convert beggars to self-supporting members of society.

(5) The effects of the dispensation of public and private charities are, so far as I can judge, the same as in other places. Many objects of distress are relieved, and I presume, occasionally, an unworthy person perpetrates a swindle on the charity giver. While the necessities of the beggars are not so urgent here as in cold climates, yet they appear in considerable numbers and present a most pitiable condition owing to the presence of disease among them.

(6) No efforts are now being made, and so far as I am advised, none have been made heretofore looking to the elevation of the recipients of charities.

(7) No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriages of paupers.

At a meeting of the legislative council on the 4th instant, the governor submitted to that body the following letter from the surgeon-general to the colonial secretary:

HON. COLONIAL SECRETARY:

I submit a return made up to the 30th of April last of paupers who were being kept in hospital not for the purpose of treatment, but to prevent them from starving, and whose maintenance it is the moral duty of the local authority, the borough of Port-of-Spain, to provide for.

The cost of maintenance in hospital, at the rate of about 2 shillings per head, per day, amounts to the large sum of £3,674.

I have to request that this list be submitted to the local authority and the latter be requested to remove, without delay, these people who no longer need treatment in the hospital.

In several previous applications to the local authority, in similar cases, the borough council have pleaded that there was no accommodation in the Borough Asylum and that the municipal ordinance did not authorize them to give outdoor relief. In case of any similar plea, I strongly recommend an application to the supreme court to call upon the local authorities to show cause why these pauper residents of the borough should not be maintained in asylums provided by the borough, or that the draft hospitals ordinance now under consideration, which has a clause dealing with this matter, be passed without delay.

S. L. CRANE,
Surgeon-General.

7th June, 1892.

The matter was referred to a select committee. The committee has not yet reported, but it is understood that the city authorities claim that the colonial authorities have allowed paupers to land here from Barbadoes.

WM. P. PIERCE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Trinidad, July 11, 1892.

DUTCH WEST INDIES.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH, OF CURAÇAO.

This island is fortunately free from that class of vagrants called "tramps." There is a law here prohibiting begging in the public streets, but it has never been enforced, and until lately "beggars" could be seen going from door to door asking for alms, but since the Masonic lodge has created a fund for the distribution of alms this habit has been successfully suppressed.

The fund for this purpose is sustained by monthly contributions and donations of the well-to-do people and alms are weekly distributed.

As the largest part of these beggars are old or decrepit no efforts are being made for their moral elevation.

L. B. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Curaçao, West Indies, March 30, 1892.

FRENCH WEST INDIES.

GUADELOUPE.

REPORT BY CONSUL BARTLETT.

(1) Vagrants are not controlled nor regulated so far as they do nothing against the laws of the colony.

(2) The municipality distribute at the civil hospital and at the city hall every month to those in actual need.

(3) No efforts are being made for the punishment or suppression of begging.

(4) No efforts are being made to convert "beggars" and "tramps" to self-supporting members of society.

(5) In my opinion indiscriminate dispensation of charities only tends to foster begging, and one is liable to give alms to those not really in need. I myself, for instance, have some experience of it; for several years I have had charge of the "poor funds" of the Masonic lodge

here, and before I had charge the funds were indiscriminately distributed as alms and given to those sometimes who were not really in need. I only give to persons in actual need, and many poor wayfarers have we assisted along on their journey, after they proved themselves worthy; and I have never been entirely out of funds, as each Free Mason now contributes liberally.

(7) No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers.

CHARLES BARTLETT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Guadeloupe, May 12, 1892.

SANTA DOMINGO.

REPORT BY CONSUL MAXWELL.

There is no class of vagrants in this country known as "tramps" dependent upon charity for support. The vagrants or roving characters who sometimes appear in the mountain districts subsist on the wild fruits and vegetables of the forests, which, owing to the luxuriance of the soil and the mildness of the climate, are quite abundant. There are no public methods employed for the distribution of alms. Beggars are not very numerous compared with the population. The maim, halt, blind, and the like unfortunates select Saturday as the only day for asking alms, when they go from house to house asking "lesmona," or alms, from all who feel disposed to give, and there is no disposition on the part of the national or municipal authorities to interfere in anyway with this custom, which has existed, I am told, from time immemorial. There are three charitable institutions in this city (Santo Domingo) supported by private individuals or enterprises. The "Beneficencia" and the "Manicomio," or insane asylum, were both founded by the late Father Billini, a virtuous and philanthropic priest; both are supported from the proceeds of a semimonthly lottery, supplemented by a small donation from the municipal government; the lottery is very generally patronized by the public. I am advised that the average annual income from these sources for the support of these two institutions amounts to about $8,000. As the inmates are few, this amount, as may be seen by the last printed report of the secretary, is almost ample for all the needs.

"La Sociedad Amigos de los Pobres," or Society of the Friends of the Poor, is under the direction of the above-named society. It admits, like the "Beneficencia," all destitute persons who are unable to provide for themselves. It is also supported from the proceeds of a semimonthly lottery-drawing, producing, I am told, about the same amount as the company of the "Beneficencia" (I give the facts without comment). These are the only charitable institutions in this consular district. The government hospital also admits a limited number of dis-

ased paupers upon proper authority, I believe the governor's certifiate. There have been no steps taken, so far as I can learn, that would pply to questions 6 or 7. Probably on account of the sparse populaion there has not been as yet any particular attention paid to these uestions.

C. L. MAXWELL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Santo Domingo, April 24, 1892.

SPANISH WEST INDIES.

CARDENAS.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT HENRIQUES.

(1) Tramps and vagrants are sent to Pine Islands.

(2) Every Saturday regularly merchants distribute a loaf of bread reighing about 1½ ounces; some in isolated cases give 5 cents to each eggar.

(3) Beggars are seen daily on the streets and going from house to ouse; many have their arms, hands, legs, or faces fractured or ulcerted, and it is indeed a disgusting, pitiable sight as they appear beore you while seated at your window, or knocking at the door; the najority are negroes and Chinese.

(4) No efforts are made for the reform of beggars. An ocular demontration would cause American civilization to shudder.

(5) Very little or no charity is given by the Spanish Government; it is ll done by private individuals.

(6) A hospital founded by the people from private subscriptions. Iovernment does not maintain same. Though it is supervised by the nayor, it is self-supporting; any deficiencies occurring, the private subcriptions are called for.

(7) There is no law restraining the marriage of paupers. As a rule oor people can not get married, owing to the heavy fees of the church; nis class generally get married before the civil judge. Hence, as they esire to be married by the the church, and the fees are so high, ney either marry before the civil judge or live with each other without eing married; hence concubinage is prevalent. In rare cases among ne whites does a white man live with a negress or a mulatto. It nay be well to mention that prostitutes pay a yearly tax to the Spanih Government to carry on their disreputable business, and they are ermitted to stand in front of their windows, doors, and on the sidevalks, indecently attired in most cases, to attract public attention.

SYDENHAM P. C. HENRIQUES,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cardenas, April 10, 1892.

SAGUA LA GRANDE.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT MULLEN.

(1) There is no law or system observed regarding vagrants, who pursue their way unmolested.

(2) There are no methods employed for the distribution of alms at present. In the year 1886 a society for the distribution of alms was formed and controlled by charitably disposed women. This society was supported by voluntary monthly contributions, ranging from 25 cents to $75. About a year ago this society disbanded for want of necessary funds.

(3) No efforts are being made for the punishment or suppression of beggars. On the contrary, the municipal authorities furnish documents to those unable to work, authorizing them to become professional beggars. It is no uncommon sight to see one of these professional beggars accompanied by an able-bodied companion whose only plea for charity is based on his filthy appearance. This class of authorized beggars roam over all the island, resting at night at some small tavern, where they pay for their meals and lodging. That their business of begging is a lucrative one may be judged from the fact that I have seen a beggar exchange silver for gold to the amount of $106. Saturday is "beggar's day," and on this day all kinds and classes may be seen going from door to door.

(4) No efforts are being made to convert "beggars" and "tramps" into self-supporting members of society.

(5) The effects of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities are the increase of the number of "beggars."

(6) The best system of distribution of public and private charities, looking to the elevation of the recipients of such charities to the condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence, and their ultimate rehabilitation as good members of society was that of the society aforementioned, whose members visited the poor at their homes.

(7) No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriages of paupers.

D. M. MULLEN,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE AGENCY,
Sagua La Grande, April 10, 1892.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

BRITISH ASIA.

ADEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL MOORE.

There is no elaborate organization for the dispensing of public or private charities.

There are seldom cases of vagrancy among Europeans at Aden, and they are usually either assisted or deported.

Alms are distributed from the poor fund which is under the control of the government, but only worthy cases are relieved.

The native vagrants are mostly Somalis from Africa, but they are few in number, and as there is very little public begging little or no interference is made to suppress it.

DWIGHT MOORE,
Consul.

U. S. CONSULATE,
Aden, August 2, 1892.

BRITISH INDIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL MERRILL, OF CALCUTTA.

In British India a policeman is empowered to require any person of European extraction who is apparently a vagrant to accompany him for the purpose of appearing before a magistrate, and the magistrate, on being satisfied that the individual arrested is a vagrant, has the power to send him to the workhouse, an institution established by the government.

At the workhouse vagrants are either provided with employment or deported from India.

Persons of European extraction found asking for alms are liable, on conviction before a magistrate, to imprisonment.

But little is done either by the British Government or by any other authority in the way of suppressing beggary or in restraining those of a roving nature among the native population from wandering wherever

they please. Many persons spend a large portion of their lives visiting sacred places, going from one holy locality to another, living on public alms, and finally locating where the gifts are bestowed most freely. Learned men who frequent some spot where their studies can be pursued without interruption receive from their admirers small contributions to enable them to exist without manual labor.

In Burmah, the priests who are unpaid teachers send out daily some of their scholars to collect a few grains or a handful of rice from each family, no direct demand being made, the empty cup or basket presenting a mute appeal for a free-will offering.

On festival days the streets of the cities and the roads to favorite bathing places are lined with the blind, the lame, and the deformed, who put up their urgent requests for aid and make most shocking displays of their wretchedness, in efforts to excite the pity of the passing throng.

On great occasions, such as the celebration of funeral obsequies or of marriage ceremonies, thousands of the poor assemble and receive gifts as they pass one by one out of an inclosure.

There seems to be no systematic method of distributing alms, no attempt made to punish or suppress beggary, and no effort put forth to convert beggars or tramps into self-supporting members of society.

The effect of indiscriminate dispensation of charity is beneficial on the contributions, and saves many a poor wretch from starvation, but it develops a mean spirit among the recipients, and produces a horde of idlers who are a curse to themselves and a torment to the community.

Nothing is done to prevent the intermarriage of paupers, for early marriage and the propagation of the species seem to be the chief end of man, having the authority of time-honored custom and the holy sanctions of religion, and supposed by both rich and poor to give promise of happiness in this life and eternal bliss in the realms beyond.

SAMUEL MERRILL,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Calcutta, May 17, 1892.

BOMBAY.

REPORT BY CONSUL BALLANTINE.

Vagrants, applying to persons straying about towns or cities without any visible means of existence, are generally arrested by the police authorities, placed before a magistrate, and on conviction as a vagrant sent to the government workhouse or reformatory. The term, applied to what are known as "tramps" in the States or European countries, here is simply "vagrant." The methods employed for the distribution of

alms are through the good offices of ministers of parishes, magistrates of the different district courts, and superintendents of public or private almshouses or sanitariums, known in the vernaculars as "dhuramsalahs," all of whom depend on public donations for their collections, which they distribute, according to their discretion, among deserving cases. Habitual and willful beggars are, according to the cases made out against them, imprisoned for short periods, of from one to fifteen days, with hard labor, and warned against repetitions of the offense, with longer terms and harder work, which invariably has a most remedial effect on the parties concerned. As to efforts to convert beggars and tramps into self-supporting members of society, it may be said that beggars served with imprisonment and hard labor invariably, after a limited period, think better of the case and follow some kind of calling, while, on the other hand, vagrants or tramps committed to the workhouse or reformatory are instructed in some profession or trade, such as those of mechanics, carpenters, shoemakers, etc., and are, after short periods, allowed to leave and go and seek employment abroad, failing which to return and work as usual until opportunity of some situation presents itself. These efforts have been and are invariably attended with marked beneficial results.

The effects of indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities have been the cause of making beggars more persistent and frequent in their calls on donors, literally demanding assistance as a right from their fellowmen.

The best proved system of distribution of charities, public or private, has been in the way of distributing chiefly articles of consumption or clothing, and a little money, at discretion, now and again. The recipient is thus forced to occupy his time in cooking the "articles of consumption" for himself and making up or mending the clothing, employing his time in a useful manner instead of in an idle and lawless way, thus inclining him to exert himself to change from a beggar to be a self-supporter.

Vagrants or beggars in the workhouse, reformatory, or prison are certainly not allowed to intermarry while in their dependent or destitute condition. But no regulations or laws have been framed, neither is it possible to prevent the intermarriage of paupers dependent on the public or private charities of their district.

This report has no reference to the numerous professional beggars, called fakirs, who, under the cloak of religion, go about appealing to their superstitious native fellowmen, earning a livelihood from their charities obtained under pressure of invoking the wrath of the gods in case of refusal. There are no laws or regulations framed for the suppression of these impostors.

H. BALLANTINE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bombay, April 14, 1892.

HONG KONG

REPORT BY CONSUL SIMONS.

For much of the information contained in the following report, I am indebted to the courtesy of the honorable colonial secretary and the police authorities of Hongkong.

Vagrants other than Chinese are regulated by ordinance 12 of 1888, herewith inclosed.

Chinese vagrants are dealt with under ordinance 8, of 1858, section 23, "Mendicancy in the public highways or streets is hereby forbidden."

Section 28. Persons violating or disobeying, or failing to comply with the several provisions of this ordinance, shall, upon summary conviction of such offense, * * * before a stipendiary magistrate or any two justices of the peace, sitting for him, incur and pay or suffer the several penalties and forfeitures hereinafter respectively made applicable to the same—that is to say, * * *

Subsection 12. For every such disobedience, violation, or default for which no specific penalty is hereinbefore provided, such sum, not exceeding in any case five dollars, as the court shall think fit. And (section 29) in case of nonpayment of any of the said pecuniary penalties, the same may be recovered by any of the ways and means whereby, on any summary proceedings before justices, penalties are or shall be recoverable.

The Hongkong Benevolent Society assists or distributes alms to applicants other than Chinese or Portuguese, if on inquiry they are found deserving.

The St. Andrew's Society gives assistance to indigent Scotchmen. Some poor persons are relieved by the magistrates from the poor box. Others, especially Portuguese, obtain alms by going around with subscription lists or begging letters, and still others, both Portuguese and Chinese, are relieved by the Roman Catholic priests. The above classes can hardly be called vagrants. If in England, most of them would receive relief from the parish relieving officers.

Vagrants deported from the colony at the expense of the government, on their agreeing not to return for five years, are liable to be sentenced to three months' imprisonment with hard labor, if they break the agreement. The penalty may be imposed on those soliciting alms in an insolent or threatening manner.

Shipmasters leaving "destitutes" in the colony are liable to be made to defray the expense to which the government may be put on behalf of such "destitutes."

Chinese mendicants are fined, and in default of payment are sent to jail. Sometimes they are sent, at the expense of the government, to their native places. These, as a rule, soon return to the colony. Chinese mendicants are very hard to deal with. Deportation will not keep them away, and imprisonment is no punishment nor corrective to them.

The magistrates assist those brought before them under the vagrancy ordinance to find employment.

Those who refuse employment provided for them are liable to imprisnment for one month with hard labor. If, after a reasonable time, no mployment is found, vagrants may be sent out of the colony at the exense of the government on their signing an agreement not to return ithin five years.

The dispensation of private charity to Chinese mendicants encourges them to come to Hongkong in large numbers, with the result that ne can not pause for a moment on the street or in the doorway of a hop without being solicited for alms by one or more wretched, blind, r deformed Chinese.

This indiscriminate almsgiving also encourages some poor Portuguese o come here from Macao. The best system of dispensing charities has or its object the reformation of the recipient and his conversion into useful member of society.

No system of almsgiving, properly so called, has ever received a suffiient trial in Hongkong to enable an intelligent and definite opinion o be formed as to its merits.

There is no restraint placed upon the intermarriage of paupers in this olony. Throughout China the beggars are regularly enrolled in clans r guilds, with various rules and regulations of their own, but in Hongong no such system obtains.

I omitted to state that there is also a German benevolent society which ssists indigent persons of that nationality and furnishes transportaion for them to Germany or elsewhere, if occasion requires.

O. H. SIMONS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hongkong, April 25, 1892.

[Inclosure in Consul Simons's report.]

HONGKONG VAGRANCY ORDINANCE.

(1) In this ordinance the term vagrant means any person other than a Chinese und asking for alms or without any employment or visible means of subsistence. Agent of a vessel incudes any person who undertakes the agency of such vessel, ough he may not be the consignee thereof.

(2) The governor may provide a house of detention for vagrants at such place as may think proper, and may appoint a superintendent and such officers as he may ink proper, and may remove any such superintendent or officers at pleasure.

The governor may by notification in the Gazette certify any building or part of a ilding to be a house of detention for the purposes of this ordinance, and until y such house be provided the jail at Victoria may be used as such house for the rpose of this ordinance.

(3) Every house of detention shall be under the immediate charge of a superinndent, who shall be appointed, and may be suspended or removed by the governor, d until any other appointment is made the superintendent of Victoria jail shall the superintendent of the house of detention.

(4) Any police officer may require any person who is apparently a vagrant to accompany him or any other police officer to, and to appear before, a magistrate.

(5) Such magistrate shall in such case, or in any other case where a person apparently a vagrant comes before him, make a summary inquiry into the circumstances of such apparent vagrant, and if satisfied that he is a vagrant shall declare him to be such.

(6) If such magistrate shall be further of opinion that such vagrant is not likely to obtain employment at once, or if he has reason to believe that a declaration of vagrancy has on any former occasion been recorded in respect of such vagrant, he shall require such vagrant to go to a house of detention, and shall draw up an order to that effect.

(7) The vagrant shall then be placed in charge of the police for the purpose of being forwarded to the house of detention and the said order shall be a sufficient authority to the police for retaining him in their charge while he is on his way to the house of detention and to the superintendent of the house of detention for receiving and detaining such vagrant.

(8) Where the magistrate dealing with such vagrant is of opinion that the vagrant is likely to obtain employment in the colony, such magistrate may in his discretion forward the vagrant in charge of the police to the place where such employment is likely to be obtained and may draw up an order to that effect. Such order shall be a sufficient authority to the police for retaining the vagrant in their charge whilst on his way to such place of employment, and afterwards, should he not succeed in obtaining such employment.

(9) The magistrate dealing with any vagrant shall to the best of his ability assist him in seeking employment, and may in the meantime if he thinks fit keep such vagrant in charge of the police. Should the flagrant fail to abtain suitable employment within a reasonable time, not exceeding at the most seven days, such magistrate shall forward him to a house of detention, as provided in section 6.

(10) Every person while in charge of the police under this ordinance or whilst seeking employment shall be entitled to the same maintenance and subject to the same regulations as prisoners detained on remand.

(11) Every vagrant detained in any house of detention shall be allowed the same scale of diet for his support as is allowed to adult long-sentence prisoners whose conduct is good.

(2) Every vagrant admitted to any house of detention shall be subject to the same regulations as are prisoners in jail with respect to (*a*) search of his person, clothing, and effects; (*b*) custody of his clothing and effects; (*c*) the wearing of a distinctive dress; (*d*) personal cleanliness; (*e*) hours, meals, labor (other than penal labor) and general conduct. Always provided that such regulations may be specially modified in relation to vagrants by any code of rules approved by the governor in council and that any money or effects of any vagrant may be applied towards the expense of carrying this ordinance into execution for his benefit.

(13) Any vagrant who knowingly disobeys any rule applicable to him or made under the previous section of this ordinance shall be liable to the same punishment, and such punishment shall be awarded as if he were a misdemeanant in jail.

(14) The superintendent of such house of detention shall forward weekly to the harbormaster a list of such vagrants under his charge as are seamen, and shall otherwise use his best endeavors to obtain suitable employment outside such house for the vagrants admitted thereto.

(15) When such employment is obtained, any vagrant refusing or neglecting to avail himself thereof shall, on conviction before a magistrate, be liable to imprisonment with hard labor for a term not exceeding one month.

(16) If, after the lapse of a reasonable time no suitable employment is obtainable for any such vagrant, the superintendent of the house of detention in which he is detained may either (when such vagrant has entered into an agreement as her- rein-

after mentioned) cause him to be removed from the colony, or he may cause sections 25 and 28 of this ordinance to be read to such vagrant and may then release him.

(17) The cost of the removal from the colony of any vagrant under this ordinance shall be defrayed by the government, subject to the provisions hereinafter contained for its refund.

(18) Any vagrant or other person other than a Chinese may enter into an agreement in writing with the superintendent of any house of detention or with the colonial secretary, binding himself to embark on board such ship and at such time as may be named in such agreement for the purpose of being removed from Hongkong at the expense, if any, of the government of this colony, to remain on board until such ship shall have arrived at the port of destination, and not to return to Hongkong within five years.

(19) Every such agreement may be on unstamped paper and shall be in the form set forth in the schedule to this ordinance or as near thereto as may be.

(20) Whenever any person, not a Chinese, lands in this colony or being a non-commissioned officer or soldier in Her Majesty's army leaves that army in this colony under an engagement to serve any person, company, or association, or body of persons in any capacity, and whenever any sailor other than a Chinese sailor is discharged from his ship in this colony and such person, noncommissioned officer, soldier or sailor becomes chargeable to the colony as a vagrant within a period of six months after his arrival here or after his leaving the army or discharge from his ship as the case may be, then the person, company, association or body to serve whom he has so landed in Hongkong, left the army, or, in the case of a sailor, the person who was at the date of his discharge the owner or agent of the ship from which such sailor has been so discharged, shall be liable to pay to the government the cost of his removal under this ordinance and all other charges incurred by the colony in consequence of his becoming a vagrant.

(21) Every master of a ship landing or allowing to land in this colony any person other than a Chinese who at the time of his landing is obviously destitute of means of subsistence or does actually become so within a period of six months from the date of landing shall be liable to repay to the government of this colony all costs and charges incurred by the colony in consequence of such person becoming a vagrant unless such master satisfy the court that he made due inquiry as to the person so landed or allowed to land, and that he had reason to believe such person was possessed of means of subsistence.

(22) In the absence of such master of a vessel the owner, agent, or consignee of such vessel at the time the person who subsequently became a vagrant was allowed to land shall be liable to pay the said costs and charges on his behalf.

(23) Such costs and charges shall be recoverable by suit as if an express agreement to repay them had been entered into with the colonial secretary by the person, company, association, body, owner, agent, or consignee chargeable.

(24) In any proceeding under this ordinance a certified copy of the declaration recorded under section 3 shall be *prima facie* evidence that the person named therein has been and that he was a vagrant at the date of such declaration.

(25) Any person apparently a vagrant refusing or failing to accompany a police officer to or to appear before a magistrate when required to do so for the purposes of this ordinance may be arrested without warrant and shall be liable on conviction to imprisonment with hard labor for a period not exceeding one month.

(26) Any vagrant who escapes from the police whilst committed to their charge under this ordinance or who leaves a house of detention without permission from the superintendent, or who, having with such permission left a house of detention for a limited time or a specified purpose, fails to return on the expiration of such time or when such purpose has been accomplished or proves to be impracticable, shall for every such offense be punishable on conviction before a magistrate with hard labor for a period not exceeding three months.

(27) Any person entering into an agreement under section 16 of this ordinance and willfully violating that agreement in any respect shall for every such offense be punishable on conviction before a magistrate with hard labor for a period not exceeding three months.

(28) Any person asking for alms in a threatening or insolent manner, or continuing to ask for alms of any person after he has been required to desist, shall be punishable on conviction before a magistrate, with hard labor for a period not exceeding three months.

(29) The governor in council may from time to time make rules consistent with this ordinance for the guidance of officers in matters connected with it. All such rules shall be published in the Government Gazette, and shall thereupon have the force of law.

SCHEDULE.

Articles of agreement made this —— day of ——— between the colonial secretary of Hongkong, of the one part, and A. B. of, etc., (the vagrant) of the other part: Each of the parties hereto (so far as relates to the act on his own part to be performed) hereby agrees with the other of them as follows:

(1) The said A. B. shall embark on board such ship, and at such time as an officer appointed in this behalf by the government of Hongkong shall direct.

(2) The said A. B. shall remain on board such ship until such ship shall have arrived at the port of destination.

(3) The said A. B. shall not return to Hongkong until five years shall have elapsed from the date of such embarkation unless specially permitted to return by the governor of Hongkong.

(4) The said colonial secretary of Hongkong shall contract with the owner of the said ship or his agent for the passage of the said A. B. on board the said ship, and for his subsistence during the voyage for which he shall embark as aforesaid.

(5) In witness whereof the said colonial secretary of Hongkong and the said A——— B. have hereunto set their hands the day and year first above written.

CHINA.

REPORT BY CONSUL FOWLER, OF NINGPO.

Tramps and beggars in China are a recognized body and have a certain place in the public affairs of this empire.

Not controlled by any laws, as vagrants they roam where they will. Like all other classes in this country they are formed into guilds, the most powerful, I believe, having its headquarters at Nanking, with its recognized leader, rules, and compacts, that are strictly observed. So perfect is this organization that it often makes its power felt with the more fortunate classes.

In so far as the laws, other than those they themselves make, they are under no control.

During the cold weather the guilds in many cities furnish "soup kitchens," where once a day rations are issued to any who choose to come.

The clans or guilds support their own members; bound as they are by their early teachings, they exert every means in their power to keep their relations off the street.

In Ningpo houses are established for the support of orphans and widows, maintained by the various guilds.

A guild in China is somewhat similar in its organization to a trades union in the United States.

I am not aware of the existence of any law against begging or of any efforts being made to suppress it. No efforts are made to convert beggars or tramps into self-supporting members of society.

All charities here are to a degree private. Paupers have no restraint placed upon them in reference to marriage, but of course it is the first duty of the son to aid his parents; but that is no bar to his marrying.

JOHN FOWLER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Ningpo, April 20, 1892.

SHANGHAI.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LEONARD.

There being no general legislation or regulations affecting begging or the dispensing of charity, or efforts made to convert beggars and tramps into self-supporting members of society within this consular district, I shall not attempt to follow the questions of the circular calling for information regarding the manner of dispensing public charities, dated February 10, 1892, but confine my report to the local phases of begging and almsgiving.

In Shanghai and vicinity beggars are principally seen about the city gates and temple yards.

As long as they are not violently clamorous no attempt is made to restrain them, but a beggar chief, who holds some sort of an appointment from the district magistrate, is held responsible for the conduct of beggars within a given district. He is usually appointed from the ranks of the beggars.

On the first of each month he collects from the houses and shops within his district a voluntary contribution, varying from 10 to 50 cents, for which he gives a formal receipt. This is posted in a conspicuous place within the house or shop, and exempts the holder from the importunings of the beggar community for the balance of the month.

On stated days he doles out to the beggars, who assemble for the purpose, what he has collected, less his commission.

While this prevents annoyance to householders and shopkeepers, it does not interfere with begging at the city gates, temples, and public places.

The coin of the country being of such small value—about one-tenth of a cent—one can distribute alms freely without impoverishing himself, as a well-behaved beggar is contented with 1 cash.

There are various refuges for the poor, but they are, as a rule, supported by guilds or private societies.

When a new establishment is proposed the matter is submitted to the authorities, who grant or refuse permission as the case may be.

Occasionally court fines are turned over to charitable institutions.

There are homes for the aged, the insane, incurables, and the blind. The latter class are able to earn something by fortune telling, but as a general thing no work is required of adult inmates of charity homes.

There are also establishments for destitute children.

They are taught, and the brighter ones selected and permitted to compete in the examinations for civil appointments. The less intelligent are taught to be engravers, tailors, barbers, and shoemakers.

The beggar class in Shanghai is not numerous. The opium habit is the cause of a large proportion of the worst poverty in this section of China.

There are no efforts made to prevent intermarriage between paupers.

J. A. LEONARD,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Shanghai, China.

JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITHERS, OF OSAKA AND HIOGO.

Beggars are punished by confinement of not less than three days and not to exceed ten days, or to a fine of not less than one yen, and not to exceed 1.95 yen, and when released are cautioned not to be wandering about, but to settle in one place and not to depend upon others for a living.

There are no fixed methods regarding the distribution of alms. Paupers are relieved as follows: For the sick not able to feed themselves 5 sen per day.* For each member of their families, 3 sen per day. For old men and infants, 3 sen per day.

The method of relieving paupers, such as widows, orphans, etc., the Kobe Private Charitable Society, is as follows:

(*a*) The term of relief not to exceed 12 periods, 1 period being th days.

(*b*) Relief in full for those who can not feed themselves.

(*c*) Orphans are relieved between the ages of 1 and 14 years.

(*d*) Paupers are educated with the view of making them more tuous.

(*e*) During the daytime work is allotted to them according to ages and capacity.

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* The sen is worth about nine-tenths of a cent.

(*f*) During the night they are educated at school.

(*g*) Paupers who are relieved by the society of charities are put to work in making umbrellas and embroideries, and young children are educated daily according to the kindergarten system.

At Osaka there is a similar society for the distribution of charity which extends relief to the poor. The funds of this society are largely augmented by holding fairs.

E. J. SMITHERS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hiogo, May 27, 1892.

PALESTINE.

REPORT BY CONSUL MERRILL, OF JERUSALEM.

(1) The class of vagrants generally designated "tramps" does not exist in this country.

(2) The methods employed for the distribution of alms are (*a*) direct distribution of money, food, or clothing; (*b*) the Jews divide their "haluka," which is made up of money collected in Europe, at so much per head, whether the parties need aid or not; (*c*) the poor are allowed to beg from house to house; (*d*) one day in each week is known as "beggar's day," when this class are at liberty to call at any house or shop, or on any person for aid. Some shopkeepers set apart a sum of money to be distributed on such days.

(3) No efforts are being made for the punishment or suppression of begging.

(4) No efforts are being made to convert "beggars" or "tramps" into self-supporting members of society.

(5) The effect of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities are: (*a*) It affords temporary relief to the recipients; (*b*) many persons thus receive assistance who neither need or deserve it; (*c*) it encourages begging and increases the amount of simulated poverty; (*d*) so far as such distribution is in the hands of the different religious bodies, say the Jews, Latins, Greeks, and this is almost exclusively the case in this country, it tends to pauperize their adherents; (*e*) it prevents any proper ideas of labor and its reward, or of economy and self-reliance from being inculcated among the poorer classes, and tends to discourage any aspirations for a life of honest independence.

(6) What has proved to be the best system of distribution of public and private charities, looking to the elevation of the recipients of such charities to the condition of self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence, and their ultimate rehabilitation as good members of society? This question presupposes conditions which exist in civilized lands,

but which do not exist in this country; hence a reply to it is simply impossible.

(7) No efforts have been made to prevent the intermarriages of paupers.

It is possible that the foregoing covers all the ground contemplated by the circular, as the questions seem to be confined to the vagrant class. But there are in this city a large number of unfortunate and helpless persons, orphans, aged people, those who are sick or suffering from accident or disease, who can not be reckoned with the army of beggars, and for whom much is done. Orphanages, schools, asylums, hospitals, dispensaries, soup kitchens, lodging houses, and other establishments of a similar character have been provided for such people until it is probable that Jerusalem has a greater number of institutions of this kind in proportion to its population than any other city on the globe. Some of these are wholly private; that is, they are provided for and controlled by a single individual. Others are strictly religious; that is, they are under the care of some religious body and are open exclusively to the adherents of that particular faith. Such is the character of all establishments belonging to the Jews, Latins, and Greeks. These institutions are all free; for example, in case of a hospital, beds, medical advice and attendance, and medicine are furnished without charge.

The motives prompting to all this varied work are many, but I believe that the idea of preventing vagrancy is seldom, if ever, entertained. Each religious sect feels bound to retain the allegiance of its members and, as far as possible, to secure new adherents; and gratuitous house rent, food, medical care, and the like are inducements which appeal powerfully to the native mind. There are, however, a few benevolent institutions in this city which have a wider scope and take under their care any sick or needy persons without regard to race or religion. Such are the hospital of the Kaiserswerth Deaconnesses, and notably the Ophthalmic Hospital, belonging to the Order of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem. The Jews do nothing for anyone outside their own people and faith, while, on the other hand, there are several Protestant societies which work directly and exclusively for the benefit of the Jews. The Mohammedans, as is well known, do nothing in the way of benevolent work for any unfortunate class, not even among their own people.

Society is so curiously constituted in Jerusalem, there being such a number of nationalities and religions represented, that it is difficult to state briefly how the educational and benevolent work that is carried on here is provided for and maintained; but it may be sufficient for the purposes of this report to say that a large proportion of the funds required come from Europe and America, brought hither by pilgrims or sent as special contributions, and that the control of such funds is generally in hands of committees of foreigners, such as missionaries, physi-

ians, and other agents, acting in connection with various societies and enevolent organizations in other lands.

An oriental country without beggars is inconceivable, and in a land ke Palestine, where begging is allowed and encouraged, all work of he kind now contemplated must be arranged on the plan of gratuity; ence, while it can not be denied that much good is done, as in the case f industrial schools for orphan boys, the tendency of it all is to pauerize the people and to discourage any effort, certainly any determined truggle, for an independent, self-supporting existence.

SELAH MERRILL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Jerusalem, Syria, May 17, 1892.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

REPORT BY CONSUL WEBB, OF MANILA.

It is exceedingly difficult, in a country like the Philippine Islands, o draw a clearly defined line between the vagrant and the native resilent of the self-supporting class. The uncultivated native is a vagrant y nature and as the result of his surroundings. Food is easy to obtain, lothing is unnecessary, except to comply with the requirements of nodesty and common decency, and houses in which to sleep can easily e dispensed with. Anyone who has sufficient energy to move about an find, growing wild, all the food he needs, and the streams, which are ery numerous, are alive with fish. Under these conditions vagrancy s universal and comparatively inoffensive and harmless, except to the erson engaged in the business. Those natives who beg are those who re blind or are so afflicted physically that they can work upon the ympathies of the foreign residents and get money with which to buy iquor.

There are no "tramps" of the kind known to civilized countries. Those natives who have energy enough to "tramp" away from the ities and towns always find the doors of the native huts hospitably pen to them, and they can always earn in any city or town enough in ne day to maintain them a week in the outlying districts. No attempt s made to control or regulate the vagrant population except to keep hem subservient to the general laws.

The universal method for the distribution of alms is that prevalent n the cities and towns, as a result of religious devotion. Nearly every erson who can afford to do so pledges himself before one of the Catholic saints to give alms to the poor for a certain period or as long as he as the means of keeping his pledge. He designates a certain day of he week when he posts one of his servants at his front doorway with

a box of rice, holding 1 or 2 bushels. This the servant deals out to the passing beggars, 2 or 3 ounces to each, sometimes not more than an ounce; or sometimes he, or a member of his family, stands at the door and gives a copper coin, worth 1 cent and a quarter, to each beggar. The beggars soon learn the distribution days at the various houses, and when the distributor opens his door in the morning he usually finds from 100 to 200 beggars standing in line ready to accept the small pittance. The time of distribution is generally from 7 to 12 a. m., and the beggar who attends to business can find, on any day of the week, at least fifteen or twenty houses where rice or coppers are being distributed, thus enabling him to maintain himself and family the year around quite comfortably. Having thus occupied the forenoon he passes the afternoon in sleep, playing cards, or gambling at the cockpits, if he has money enough; if not, he may stroll about the streets begging coppers from passers-by.

For Manila there is a city ordinance prohibiting public begging except on Fridays; but little or no attention is paid to it and on the retail business streets the foreigner is almost constantly followed and importuned by two or three beggars every day. Blind and horribly deformed mendicants are numerous, and they manage to collect many coppers during the day by thrusting their "attractions" upon the foreigners who visit the shops and bazars.

Beside the private distributions the religious corporations or brotherhoods, which are, as a rule, very wealthy, set apart days on which rice is doled out to the poor. No efforts, apparently, are made for the punishment or suppression of begging, for beggars of all kinds and conditions may be seen on the streets at all hours of the day or night, and they are generally considered as a necessary and unavoidable evil.

No systematic effort has been made to convert to self-supporting members of society the beggars which infest the cities and towns, beyond the general efforts of the church fathers and the ineffective attempts of the Government to encourage agriculture. The climatic and social conditions are unfavorable to the conversion of a beggar after he has once adopted this means of maintaining his existence.

As can be readily seen there are no public charities outside the churches, and the indiscriminate dispensation of private charities has naturally increased the number of beggars, and has confirmed in the habit those engaged in it.

No efforts are made to prevent the intermarriage of paupers; in fact there are very few, if any, legal marriages among them. They herd together indiscriminately, and the marriage ceremony is considered an unnecessary item of expense. I have heard of instances where the priests have found paupers living together without having been duly married and have performed the ceremony for them, but it is quite a common practice, even among natives who earn their living, to assume the marriage relation and postpone the performance of the legal

remony indefinitely. Little else can be expected in a country where 'en Europeans live, unmarried, with native women and raise large milies of children by them without seemingly incurring any public insure.

ALEC. R. WEBB,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Manila, April 19, 1892.

SIAM.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL BOYD, OF BANGKOK.

All the people in Siam are subjects, not citizens, except the Ameri- ns. There are no Siamese "tramps." The few "tramps" are sub- cts of foreign European powers. The hot suns, hot fevers, and ever- esent cholera, belonging to this realm, very quickly disposes of them. My observation and experience lead me to believe that the "tramp" is a far better geographical knowledge than any other class of civil- ed Europe in regard to countries and climes genial and inviting to em specially. The "tramp" knows that bananas, rice, and jungle fruit ake a light diet, and diet is one of the indispensables to his comfort id ease, and that a country of bamboo jungles, tigers, leopards, wild rocious dogs, and big snakes, and no roads or stable lofts, is very ggestive of danger; consequently, there are few tramps and no neces- ty for royal decrees and regulations in this particular.

Every Siamese subject works at something. The great mass of peo- e are poor, and many of the old, unable to provide for themselves, are red for by their children, if they have any; if not, then the priests ke care of them from voluntary donations made every day by all the ople. All charities are attended to by the priesthood, and they are dustrious, faithful, and loyal in the discharge of these duties. All ms are distributed by them.

There is no begging or beggars here. Orphanage is under control of e priesthood. Several homes for such unfortunates are supported by e Queen and princesses, and managed by priests.

This is to all intents and purposes a kingdom of "many wives." ome formulas are required, and Siamese unusally conform to them. uropeans do not. Europeans, many of them, at least, go into the arket of girls, and after making selections, pay their parents the rice, ranging from 40 to 400 ticals each. I regret to state that this ustom and practice is defended and upheld by newspapers printed ere by Europeans, especially by the Bangkok Times.

There is a Siamese law of descents and distributions protecting the ghts of children to estates, and directing distribution, and courts have

very little to do in enforcing it, as all appear to acquiesce in a friendly distribution.

The Siamese are a quiet, industrious, peaceable, polite people, fond of good, rich dressing, diamonds, and precious stones. All read and write and attend church; never drink intoxicants. A more contented people would be difficult to find. The King has no enemies among his subjects. No people in the world are recipients of outside, foreign advice in regard to their Government affairs to such an extent as are the people of this Kingdom; particularly so are Europeans interested, however. This is a world-wide known characteristic of that great people.

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S. H. BOYD,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bangkok, April 13, 1892.

CONTINENT OF AFRICA.

EGYPT.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL-GENERAL GRANT, OF CAIRO.

1. The following is a translation of the law regulating vagrancy in Egypt, which took effect on July 13, 1891, and is still in force:

ARTICLE 1. The following persons shall be considered vagrants: (1) Individuals who have no fixed domicile nor means of subsistence, and who do not follow any steady trade or profession; (2) beggars capable of work who habitually haunt the public streets asking alms; (3) those who seek to earn a living by games of chance and fortune-telling.

ART. 2. The vagrants specified in paragraph 3 of the foregoing article shall be punished by fifteen to forty-five days' imprisonment.

Those mentioned in paragraphs 1 and 2 shall, on the first occasion, be handed over to the police, who shall warn them and make note of the fact. The second time they shall be liable to the said penalty of fifteen to forty-five days' imprisonment; besides, both shall be placed under police supervision for a period of from six months to one year. Nevertheless the judge shall have the option to substitute for the penalties above mentioned that of exile for one year in some place on Egyptian territory, to be designated by the Government.

In case of second offense he can extend the penalty of imprisonment to one year and the period of supervision or of exile to three years.

TITLE II.—*Suspicious characters.*

ART. 3. In addition to vagrants, the following persons shall be considered suspicious characters: (1) Individuals who have been convicted of theft or swindling; (2) those who are under police supervision on account of conviction of crimes or offenses by the courts; (3) those who are found after sunset loitering about or hidden in the outskirts of a town or village, or in any other place which would give rise to suspicions, and who can not justify their presence for any plausible object.

ART. 4. The individuals mentioned in the third paragraph of the foregoing article shall, on the first occasion, be brought before the police authorities, who shall warn them and make note of the fact.

In case of second offense, or if these individuals are even found on the first occasion in numbers of three or more under the circumstances prescribed by the said paragraph, they shall be arrested and turned over to the public prosecutor.

The same penalties prescribed for vagrants shall be applicable to them, and if one or more of them carry firearms, the imprisonment shall be for a period of at least six months.

ART. 5. Vagrants and suspicious characters who shall be found outside of their dwellings in any way disguised, or in possession of files, pick-locks, or any other instruments for obtaining entrance into houses, shops, or other places, shall be punished by imprisonment for a period of from one to three months.

ART. 6. Vagrants and suspicious characters who shall have no visible pecuniary means shall be punished with three to six months' imprisonment if they are found to

be in possession of one or more articles having a value greater than 400 piasters ($20), and who cannot give any satisfactory explanation of how they obtained possession.

ART. 7. The penalties prescribed by the penal code against persons having false passports, false certificates, or false traveling papers, shall be applied to their full extent when pronounced against vagrants or suspicious characters.

ART. 8. Persons convicted in accordance with the foregoing articles shall be placed under police supervision for not less than one year and not more than three years.

In case of a recurrence of the offense, the penalties prescribed in Article 2 shall be applied to their full extent.

TITLE III.—*Police supervision.*

ART. 9. When a person under police supervision shall have undergone his principal penalty, the public prosecutor shall send him before the police authorities of the chief town, who shall give him a police pass and send him to the police authorities of the district where such person must fix his residence.

ART. 10. If he shall deviate from the road which has been designated for him to take, or if he shall not present himself to the said authorities within twenty-four hours of his arrival, he shall be punished in accordance with Article 55 of the penal code. After he shall have undergone this penalty, he shall be taken by force before the police authorities where he ought to have presented himself.

ART. 11. The person under supervision should always have with him his certificate of domicile, which should be delivered to him by the police authority of the district where he has his residence. He must also conform to the following regulations:

(1) He must present himself to the said authority on the days and at the hours indicated in his certificate of domicile and on every occasion on which he may be called. In case he be prevented by some legitimate cause, he should notify the chief authority of his quarter, who will inform the police authority.

(2) He must show his certificate of domicile to the police agents whenever required.

(3) He must return to his dwelling at sunset and not come out until sunrise.

ART. 12. These regulations must be mentioned in the certificate of domicile, and the police authority may add any other similar directions which he may think necessary.

ART. 13. In every police station there shall be kept a register, in which the names of persons under supervision, who have their residences in the district, shall be inscribed, and there shall be noted therein the days when such persons must present themselves as well as the regulations which they are to follow.

ART. 14. Any violation of any of the regulations above mentioned shall be punished in accordance with article 55 of the penal code.

An extract from the register mentioned in the foregoing article will be sufficient to establish the violation until proof to the contrary.

ART. 15. A person under supervision who desires to change his residence must make a written application therefor to the police authority of the district, setting forth his motives for such change, and designating the village or city to which he desires to be transferred.

ART. 16. In order to go to his new residence, if authorized, he must be provided with a traveling pass and must present himself to the police authority of the district immediately after his arrival, and obtain from him another certificate of domicile.

The provisions of article 10 and 14 shall be applicable to him.

ART. 17. The police authority may, at any time, without formality, make domiciliary visits to persons who are under supervision according to the terms of articles 2 and 8 of this decree if they have just reasons for suspecting them to be guilty of a crime or an offense.

They shall also have power to arrest them and deliver them to the public prosecutor if these suspicions are confirmed.

But these domiciliary visits shall only be made in the presence of the village omida

and a sheikh or in the presence of a sheikh on duty and of another, in case of the absence of the omdeh; and in cities in presence of the chief authority of the quarter and a witness.

2. There are no public native institutions for the distribution of alms. Private charities are distributed according to the will of the giver, and are distributed in various ways. There exist here two or three foreign benevolent societies, as the Austro-Hungarian and the French. Their funds are supplied by private donations and from the proceeds of charity balls or other fêtes which are given once a year. Aid is only given on satisfactory proof that the individual demanding it is in actual need and is mostly confined to their own colonies.

3. It is difficult to punish or suppress begging in the East, because it has a recognized form of existence, and beggars are often looked on as sacred and holy. Nevertheless, an attempt is made to regulate begging. For example, article 350 of the native penal code prescribes a fine of $2.50 to $5 or imprisonment of three to seven days for persons convicted of begging in districts where begging is forbidden. There are several districts in Cairo where this prohibition is enforced and an application of the provisions of the above law for a short period has resulted satisfactorily.

5. As to the effects of indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities, it is difficult to answer properly, but it depends much upon whether such dispensation is made judiciously or not. If injudiciously dispensed it tends to increase or abet begging. No charity should be dispensed to any person who can not furnish some proof of inability to gain a livelihood otherwise.

6. The majority of beggars in this country being natives, and there being no public institutions for the distribution of alms, it becomes difficult to answer this question satisfactorily unless by citing the general principle of proving the needy condition of beggars.

7. No efforts are made to interfere with marriages of paupers on account of pauperism.

The hospitals existing in Cairo, except the Government hospital which is supported by the Government, are maintained principally by private donations and by the fees collected from those inmates who are able to pay for attendance. The annual charity balls also contribute to their maintenance.

The principal hospitals in Cairo are as follows: Government hospital, European hospital, Deaconesses' hospital.

The former is supported by the Egyptian Government. The second is supported by the European colonies in Cairo, and the third is supported by the German, English, Swiss, and American colonies. All in the manner above described.

LOUIS B. GRANT,
Vice Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Cairo, April 12, 1892.

MOROCCO.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL MATHEWS, OF TANGIER.

(1) That class of vagrants generally designated tramps is not at all controlled, as this is a nomadic nation.

(2) With the Moors the nadir (public administrator) is the authority supposed to distribute the charities obtained from legacies and property left to the poor.

With the Israelites of Morocco, each Hebrew community has a treasurer, who distributes alms every Friday, besides each family gives a loaf of bread on this day, and one the eve of each holiday; also a distribution of clothing and blankets takes place at the beginning of each winter.

(3) No efforts are being made for the punishment or suppression of begging.

(4) No efforts are being made to convert beggars and tramps to self-supporting members of society; many of the beggars have been maimed as a punishment for crime, and others by accident; these invariably subsist upon alms.

(5) The effect of the indiscriminate dispensation of public and private charities is the increase of pauperism.

(6) This country has not yet attained such a degree of civilization as to have any organization of the kind. With the Israelites, independent of what is given by the treasurer of each community, most of the families of means give private help to those of their less fortunate coreligionists, and much care being taken to avoid publicity of the names of the donors.

(7) There is no restraint whatever, nor statistics on the subject of pauper marriages. The authorities in this country have no interest in people who can not support themselves; they are left entirely to roam at large and wander without restraint.

F. A. MATHEWS,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Tangier, May 14, 1892.

SOUTH AFRICA.

REPORT BY CONSUL HOLLIS, OF CAPE TOWN.

(1) That class of vagrants designated "tramps" is neither controlled nor regulated in Cape Colony. They are, however, numerous and annoying. The reports from the mining area of the Transvaal, a South African Republic, led many to journey there, with hardly enough money to reach their destination, they being ignorant of the fact that these

mines are reef and not alluvial, and then follows a weary march to the coast, begging on the way.

But little begging is done in the street, as the police would arrest; but the annoyance in shops and offices is considerable.

(2) There are no really public charities but those fostered by the various religious denominations are numerous and are generally generously supported by the public. There are also societies outside of the churches for the reclamation of the fallen of both sexes.

(3) No special efforts are made for the suppression of begging or for the punishment of offenders further than the liability to arrest and incarceration with hard labor. This liability leads tramps to confine their attention to offices and residences.

(4) In my opinion the labors of the members of the Salvation Army are, at the present time, more efficient in converting beggars and tramps into self-supporting members of society than those of all other agencies combined, excepting, perhaps, a "faith home," organized by a philanthropic gentleman who depends wholly on voluntary subscriptions for the support of his home, where the ground is tilled and brick-making carried on as an industry. The Salvation Army has a home on similar lines and a good measure of success has attended both ventures.

(5) Probably the indiscriminate dispensation of charity, whether public or private, is the same here as everywhere else—to make the lazy lazier and the idle more idle. I believe that the feeling is well rooted here that work is the best charity.

(6) The closing paragraph of No. 5 is the keynote to this question's reply. Being connected with various societies having for their object the elevation of those cast down either by misfortune or through their own fault, my efforts, and those acting with me, have been directed to having the recipient of charity, so called, render, as far as possible, some equivalent for what he or she receives, thereby inculcating a measure of self-respect in which such people are generally deficient, and thus gradually leading them to a higher plane of thought and life and stimulating their ambition.

(7) I fail to find any restraint as regards the intermarriage of paupers. Members of that class marrying here would, if possible, and of the male gender, select a woman of the colored class who would support them in idleness, and this is of frequent occurrence.

GEO. F. HOLLIS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cape Town, August 2, 1892.

ZANZIBAR.

REPORT BY ACTING CONSUL JONES.

There is no control or regulation exercised over beggars or vagrants. Individual almsgivings, not organized methods, are followed.

No efforts are made to suppress begging, nor are there any attempts made to convert beggars into self-supporting members of society. Tramps, *i. e.*, itinerant beggars, do not exist here; the only form of vagrancy is among the diseased or aged unable to support themselves by labor.

As there is no vicious beggary, all being actually unable to support themselves, the private alms that are collected by house to house visits are thankfully and gratefully received, and there is no such indiscriminate giving of alms as would tend to increase the number of beggars.

JOS. A. JONES.
Acting Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Zanzibar, April 20, 1892.

AUSTRALASIA.

NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL CONNOLLY, OF AUCKLAND.

CONTROL OF VAGRANTS.

Up to the present there are no "tramps" in New Zealand, at least the word "tramp" is not applied to those who may move about the country in search of employment. It is true there are quite a number who, at certain seasons of the year, go from place to place endeavoring to obtain remunerative employment, but these are not designated nor in anywise regarded as "tramps;" on the contrary, they are bona fide workmen in the vast majority of cases. Consequently there is no control or regulation governing the class referred to in the matter of receiving "charitable aid" except in the following instances: If a man should apply for assistance or relief from any charitable aid board outside his own district, his case is investigated at once, and, if the officers in charge or the relief board are satisfied the case is a deserving one, his immediate wants are attended to. Should the recipient of such charity continue to receive relief for any length of time, the relief authorities of his proper district are applied to for a reimbursement of all expenses incurred on his behalf, which demand is invariably paid upon the relief recipient's identification being satisfactorily established.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

So far as relates to public charitable aid in New Zealand, the administration since 1885 has been in the hands of local boards, who have full power to levy taxes for charitable purposes and distribute the same within the district over which they have supervision. The general government contributes annually a sum equal to the amount raised by each charitable aid board in the colony; that is to say, if a local relief board should realize by taxation the sum of £5,000 the Government will, in every instance, supplement it by an equal sum from the general treasury.

The colony is divided into charitable aid districts with due regard to convenience and population. Alms are, as a rule, distributed from the

the principal town in each district. The local relief committees advertise for bids for such supplies as the board usually distributes as "outside relief." The tender of the lowest responsible bidder is accepted and the "rations" distributed under the direct supervision of an officer duly authorized by the relief board to look after such matters. The board usually employs an officer known as "the relieving officer" whose duty it is to carefully investigate all applications for relief and ascertain whether such cases are deserving and worthy of assistance. The police, especially in the remote districts, render invaluable assistance in this respect. In the large centers of population a committee of the charitable aid board meet weekly to deal with applications for relief. There are many private benevolent societies in the colony who do splendid work among the really poor and deserving classes. Nearly all the benevolent societies are maintained by private subscriptions and endowments by charitably disposed people. These societies have their own officers and work independently in the same direction as do the public boards, and by frequent interchange of reports and information the overlapping of almsgiving is reduced as far as possible.

SUPPRESSION OF VAGRANCY.

Every person without visible or sufficient means of support may be arrested by the police authorities and arraigned before a magistrate, who, if not satisfied with the prisoner's explanation, may commit the accused to a term of imprisonment. Any person found begging in the public street or other public place is liable to a penalty of three months' imprisonment with or without hard labor, as the magistrate may determine. But if found soliciting alms or subscriptions for others, under false pretenses, the maximum penalty is one year's imprisonment with hard labor. It is needless to add that under such stringent laws begging is almost a thing unknown here. The police rigidly enforce the law in this respect, particularly against professional beggars.

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

The Government has instituted what are known as "village settlements," where suitable applicants are provided with land upon the most favorable terms. Any strong, able-bodied man who really desires to build himself a home and thereby render himself independent of charity may, upon proper application to the Government, obtain a certain number of acres of land and even small sums of money, at merely nominal rates of interest, which enables him to make necessary improvements on his land. The Government, of course, must be satisfied that the applicant is honestly endeavoring to avail himself of the benefits of the "village settlements act" before assistance is given. This system finds employment for many men, who, although willing to work, can not always obtain it. Every possible means is tried by the Government to en-

courage the strong and vigorous men found in the ranks of the unemployed to become industrious and independent small farmers. The Government has inaugurated another novel, and I believe quite original, scheme for the prevention of distress and consequent pauperism among those of the laboring classes who are willing to earn an honest livelihood, viz, the coöperative system.

Nearly all the public work now under construction in the colony is being done on the coöperation principle. A Government engineer makes an estimate of the cost of construction of a piece of railway; bids are advertised for and the work is let out to gangs of laborers who have banded themselves together for this purpose. Thus, instead of giving the work to a contractor it is given to the working men of the colony, they receiving the same rate per yard for earth or rock as if the work was given to a contractor. This system is working admirably and is giving every satisfaction to all concerned. The men are making good wages and are quite enthusiastic in their work, knowing that the harder they work the more money they will have at the end of the month. This coöperative system seems to imbue them with a spirit of self-reliance and independence hitherto comparatively unknown among workmen here. The Government is to be commended for the, in many instances, unique and thoroughly practical movements for the prevention of distress and for the amelioration and elevation of the working classes generally. To its efforts, which have been blessed with the most signal success, may be atributed the conspicuous absence of pauperism and vagrancy, unfortunately so prevalent in other lands to-day.

There are many "homes" throughout the colony managed by the various religious denominations wherein women who may have fallen from the paths of rectitude are taken and cared for temporarily. These homes, or reformatories, are devoted solely to the work of rescuing those unfortunates who may, from whatever cause, move in that wretched circle generally regarded as being without the pale of what is considered an upright and moral life. They are treated with the utmost kindness and consideration by their Christian benefactors. They are encouraged, in the most kindly spirit, to forsake and forget their past, and to endeavor for the future to lead honest, virtuous, useful lives. After being kept in the "home" for some time, and being taught how to do useful domestic housework, such as they were perhaps entirely ignorant of before, they are permitted to enter the service of private families in one capacity or another, or may be sent to their own homes, if they are so fortunate as to have one. Those who go to live with private familes are treated very kindly, and the good work so auspiciously begun at the rescue home is continued, thus brightening and cheering the lives of those unfortunates who have not, perhaps, for years before heard the kind word or felt the ministering hand of a kind and generous friend.

But to the "Salvation Army" belong the greatest credit of any Christian body in New Zealand for its thoroughly practical and wholly unselfish efforts to ameliorate and elevate the fallen of both sexes, and imbue them with a proper conception of their duty and usefulness. No other organization goes into the depths and seeks out the vicious and abandoned and cordially extends the right hand of fellowship as do the Salvation Army. It reaches out after a class of men and women wholly ignored and neglected by churches and church-goers, and affords them succor and opportunities to rëestablish themselves in the respect and confidence of their fellow-men.

The "army" have established what are known as the "prison brigade homes." Prisoners who have just completed their terms of imprisonment for the various offenses such as the indolent, indifferent, imprudent, and improvident members of society are generally guilty of, are met at the prison gate by officers of the "salvation home" and cheerfully welcomed within its fold, and are kindly and generously cared for in a truly Christian spirit.

No human being can adequately estimate what a boon the cheerful "good day, sir," or "good morning" of the smiling "soldiers" must prove to the outcasts of society when on the threshold of the prison they are warmly pressed to partake of hospitalities of the "prison brigade home." Being penniless and friendless, these men gladly accept the proffered kindness, and go to the home for a time. Here they are provided with food and raiment, if required, and every possible attention paid them by those in charge of the institution.

There are a few acres of ground attached to each home which materially contributes toward making the place self-sustaining. These "homes" are usually established in the suburbs of the populous centers, and the land is cultivated by the inmates of the homes. Whatever surplus vegetables the land may produce after the requirements of the home are satisfied are sold in the town. Every man temporarily residing in the home is required to do some work, no matter how little. They are well fed and well housed, but are not allowed to eat the bread of idleness, and are kept in the home until employment is found for them.

The Salvationists have also rescue homes for women, which are governed by the same general principles, as are the homes for men.

It may truthfully be said that the Salvation Army is the only body that has made any successful effort to convert beggars and petty criminals into self-supporting members of society. In their barracks in the towns the deserving, and undeserving in many instances, get a meal, and a night's lodging, when every other charitable and benevolent institution is closed against them. Thus they get men and women under their influence, and by their kind treatment of this class of persons they are in a great number of cases enabled to control and direct their course for the better. While the world frowns upon them because of their im-

providence or excesses of whatever kind, the Salvation Army people alone extend a helping hand.

In some of the larger cities of the colony the "army" has labor bureaus in connection with their homes which render invaluable assistance to those seeking employment. Through the medium of these labor bureaus thousands of men find work who might otherwise be enumerated among the unemployed or be designated "tramps" or "vagrants," as in the United States.

The General Government has also, with commendable forethought for the welfare of the laboring classes, established labor bureaus through the colony, where information is always available as to where employment may be found. The Government owns the railways of the colony, and in consequence of this men going into the country to work are carried very cheaply and in a number of instances are passed free. From the foregoing summary of the efforts made by the Government and the various Christian bodies to convert beggars, tramps, and petty criminals into self-supporting members of society, it will be seen there is not much chance if the present efforts are continued of a numerous vagrant or tramp class growing up in this country, but the most gratifying part of all this is the fact that a large majority of those rescued or reclaimed from the paths of indolence and vice by the several bodies referred to turn out well—the rescue is permanent. Of course there are incorrigible cases which no power or influence could convert, but these are few indeed as compared to the vast number who continue to lead honest, industrious lives afterwards.

I can conceive of no system better calculated to prevent the growth of a vagrant or criminal class than that which has been adopted by the members of the Salvation Army. Through its guiding influence and persevering efforts, in behalf of those who need kind words and encouragement, but receive instead rebuffs and rebukes for their transgressions from the outside world, many have been restored to society and become useful and industrious men and women.

There is no period of a man's life, perhaps, if he be a well-disposed sensitive man, when he requires the kind counsel and assistance of a friend more than when he steps without the bounds of the prison walls to again commence the battle of life. Without money or friends, ignored and distrusted by his fellowman, the prospect is indeed a cold and cheerless one, with nothing in view, no helping hand in sight; he is forced back into his old haunts and again becomes a victim to his former vices. But, thanks to the kindly ministrations of the Salvation Army, he is met at the prison gate by these good people and invited to their home, where he is kindly received, not as an outcast from society, but as one deserving of assistance. Here he has time to reflect and mature his plans for the future, and if he be a man of any stamina he will carry his good resolutions into effect under the influence, advice, and encouragement of those in whose care he is.

The labors of the officers of the "Prison Brigade Home" have been singularly blessed with the most gratifying results.

INDISCRIMINATE CHARITY.

No doubt the effects of indiscriminate charity tends to create a class of persons not only wanting in self-reliance, but in self-respect as well, who are disposed to hang about the towns, getting a little work occasionally, but who will invariably on the first approach of want run to the charitable aid board for relief of any description. Every possible precaution is taken to prevent imposition in the dispensation of charity, as every case is carefully investigated before relief is granted. Whenever a man or woman applies for relief, if they are such as are capable of earning a livelihood, the most determined efforts are made to find them employment through the good offices of those agencies established for such purposes already referred to in the preceding paragraph. Indiscriminate charity is rigorously discouraged among those who are ever willing to take advantage of the benevolent and charitably disposed members of the community. Instead of receiving alms they are directed to those institutions created to find suitable employment and encourage industrious habits in this particular class of people.

BEST CHARITY SYSTEM.

It can not be said that the system of public charities in vogue in New Zealand has tended toward the elevation of the recipients of such relief beyond that which has already been stated in connection with the "village settlements," the labor bureaus, the temporary homes, and the coöperative labor works inaugurated by the Government, all of which have been productive of the most beneficial results in preventing the expansion of pauperism or vagrancy. There is no doubt the various means adopted to find remunerative employment for those who must have otherwise become a burden to the taxpayers have largely tended toward creating a spirit of independence and self-reliance in those recipients of public benevolence.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

There has been no effort made so far in the direction of preventing the intermarriage of paupers or criminals. Although the subject has been frequently discussed through the public prints, yet up to the present no legislative action has been taken. New Zealand is unquestionably in the vanguard of progressive and enlightened legislation. I have, therefore, no doubt this subject may in the near future engage the attention of her statesmen.

JNO. D. CONNOLLY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, April 29, 1892.

VICTORIA.

REPORT OF CONSUL-GENERAL WALLACE, OF MELBOURNE.

SWAGSMEN AND SUNDOWNERS.

The individual called a "tramp," thus designating one who travels about the country soliciting, for various reasons, gifts of food, clothing, or money for his own use, is not recognized in Australia. He is not supposed to exist. "There are no beggars in Australia," but the peculiar conditions of the agricultural industries here are and have been such as to produce a numerous body of what are known as "swagsmen." The greater part of the agricultural lands are devoted to the pastoral industry, especially sheep-breeding, and this requires during nine months of the year but a limited number of hands. During the shearing season, however, a large force is employed. As the shearing season, from Queensland in the north to Tasmania in the south, covers not less than nine months in the year, the shearers and other hands gather in Queensland in the beginning of the season, and as it advances work their way south from station to station. During the idle three months they work their way back, doing such odd jobs of rail splitting, fence building, or "tank" digging as they may be able to find to do. Upon every station there is what is called the "travelers' hut," where these men are permitted to sleep for one night (his blankets he carries with him); after having received a ration at the house, the "law of the road" compels him to move on the next day. That this privilege is abused by men traveling in search of work, which they hope never to find, is no doubt true, as the term "sundowners" has been coined to describe them.

The term "swagsman" is not a term of reproach, but that of "sundowner" is; the latter, being generally familiar with the country, times his departure and pace so as to arrive at the next station just at sundown; hence the term. The law forbids begging, and it is generally enforced.

DISTRIBUTION OF ALMS.

Alms are distributed in the colony of Victoria through various organizations, which in 1889–'90 numbered 118, as follows:

Hospitals (4 special, 29 general)	33
Hospitals and benevolent asylums combined	9
Convalescent homes	2
Benevolent asylums	6
Orphanages	7
Blind asylum	1
Deaf and dumb asylum	1
Infant asylum	1
Refugees and rescue homes	7
Ladies' benevolent societies and medical dispensaries	45
Philanthropic associations	8

The number is rapidly increasing, and in 1890–'91 numbered 126, of which 48 were metropolitan and 78 provincial.

These institutions and organizations are supported by private subscriptions, municipal contributions, and grants from the consolidated revenues of the colony, this latter being by far the largest in amount, as may be seen from the following statement of income for the Immigrants' Aid Society and the Melbourne Hospital for the year 1889–'90:

Description.	Immigrants' Aid Society.	Melbourne Hospital.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Government grant	6,724 0 0	14,000 0 0
Private contributions	490 1 6	5,216 8 1
Municipal grant	106 16 0	370 0 0
Hospital Sunday collections	384 11 8	2,985 4 2
Other church collections	.....	20 0 3
Legacies and bequests	3 14 7	5,285 15 6
Special donation	.....	10 6
Interest on investments	.....	1,426 0 7
Paying patients (seamen)	.....	136 6 7
Fees from out-patients	.....	702 5 0
Sale of refuse, etc	.....	116 12 2
Other sources	.....	276 5 10
Proceeds intestate persons	.....	113 1 7
Total	7,710 7 9	30,648 10 3

The total amounts paid from the consolidated revenues of Victoria for aid to medical charitable institutions, etc., for the past eight years is as follows:

1882–'83	£267,400
1883–'84	259,983
1884–'85	262,359
1885–'86	273,705
1886–'87	268,864
1887–'88	278,879
1888–'89	283,986
1889–'90	316,140

REFORMATION OF VAGRANTS.

No legislation or official action has been taken toward rehabilitating "beggars" or "tramps" as self-supporting citizens, and there is little indiscriminate dispensation of charity. The most of it is distributed through the channels of the Metropolitan and Suburban Ladies' Benevolent societies, the Salvation Army, the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, and kindred institutions, their efforts being directed toward the elevation of the recipients to self-support, self-respect, and self-confidence. The results of these efforts have not been reported in statistical form, but those engaged in such work maintain their efforts and claim to have had a large measure of success.

PAUPER MARRIAGES.

Nothing is done to prevent the marriage of paupers in Victoria. The governor of Victoria, with the advice of the executive council, on the 18th of March, 1890, appointed a royal commission to inquire into the

condition and management of the charitable institutions of the colony and on kindred subjects, which commission, after having gone into the subject with great care and detail, made two reports.

GEO. H. WALLACE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Melbourne, April 12, 1892.

HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL SEVERANCE, OF HONOLULU.

(1) The class of people generally designated as "tramps" are not common in this Kingdom; consequently no regulations exist for their control.

(2) Various charitable associations supported by private contributions distribute their own alms after proper examination of the applicants.

(3) No laws for the punishment or suppression of begging.

(4) Section 1 of the penal code of Hawaii concerning vagrants:

Any idle or disorderly person or vagrant who shall create a disturbance of the peace, or shall incite others to create disturbance of the peace, or riot, or shall instigate others to gamble or drunkenness, is guilty of a misdemeanor and may, upon the complaint of the attorney-general or his deputy be arrested and brought before one of the justices of the supreme court, and there summarily examined. If, upon such examination, the justice shall find that the person so brought before him is guilty of such misdemeanor, such person shall be punished by expulsion from the Kingdom.

SEC. 2. Any person against whom sentence of expulsion has been rendered who shall remain in or return to the Kingdom, unless such person shall have been by the King pardoned, shall be imprisoned with hard labor not exceeding five years.

SEC. 3. This law shall apply only to subjects of such foreign powers who by treaty or convention with the Hawaiian Government have agreed that their subjects may be returned to their own country for the offenses in this act mentioned, and to any Chinese who may hereafter enter the Kingdom under an agreement or special residence permit to depart from the Kingdom at the expiration of same.

(5) The effects of indiscriminate dispensation of such charities are not of sufficient importance to properly note.

(6) No definite system exists for distribution of public or private charities.

(7) No efforts made concerning intermarriage of paupers. No paupers among the native population.

H. W. SEVERANCE,
Consul-General.

U. S. CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Honolulu, March 15, 1892.

SUPPLEMENT.

GERMANY.

POOR LAWS OF GERMANY.

[Translated by Consul-General Edwards, of Berlin.*]

PREFACE.

This edition of the laws, relating to poverty and the superintendence of the poor, is intended to serve as a book of reference (1) for those communal officials to whom the management of the affairs of the poor is entrusted, and for the instruction of members of poor deputations who are called upon to decide in matters of interest to the poor; (2) to simplify the application and the interpretation of the laws through the general explanations and interpretations contained in the accompanying remarks, which are based, in part, upon decisions of the federal office for home affairs; (3) to present in its present form, through the accompanying remarks, the Prussian executive law of March 8, 1871, which, in large part and in very important particulars, was altered by the administrative court law of July 3, 1875, the state administrative law of July 30, 1883, and the competency law of August 1, 1883.

This edition is, with due reference to the commentary issued in connection with the imperial law of June 6, 1870, in regard to the place of residence which gives a person the rightful claim to assistance, adapted for use in all German states in which that law is in force, and is published with the expectation that municipal authorities will find it necessary to obtain a number of copies for distribution among members of their poor deputations.

H. STEFFENHAGEN.

DEMMIN, *March 18, 1885.*

INTRODUCTION.

The management of public almonry, one of the principal branches of municipal government, rests upon the township officials in the local poor organizations, who, on their part, have the right to transfer the management to a deputation to be elected from members of the magistracy and town government, also in suitable cases from a number of other members of the community. The competence of such deputations in most German towns is regulated by special instructions, influenced by local conditions, concerning forms of procedure, the organization, the sphere of competency and the control of business, or by statutory provisions having the same object. The oversight of these poor deputations extends to all matters pertaining

*Superintendence of the poor. A compilation of existing laws, explained and edited by H. Steffenhagen. Fourth edition, Berlin: J. J. Heine, publisher, 1887.

to the poor, not only to the aid of such poor persons as are not taken care of in institutions for the poor, but also to the aid of such poor persons as are cared for in such institutions. The power of poor deputations is, in most towns and in all joint poor organizations, not only of a suggestive and preparatory character, but also—within the sphere of their competency—fully independent, administrative, and executive. This responsible and, in the financial side of communal affairs, deep-reaching trust necessitates great care in regard to the qualifications of members of poor deputations, especially in regard to their knowledge of the provisions of law relative to the care of the poor and the administration of poor matters in particular:

I. The imperial law concerning the place of residence entitling a person to aid of June 6, 1870.

II. The Prussian law of March 8, 1871, relative to the enforcement of the abovementioned federal law, together with the modifications made in the administrative court law of July 3, 1875, the State administrative law of July 30, 1883, and the competency law of April 1, 1883.

III. The ministerial tariff of July 2, 1876.

I.

Law of June 6, 1870, Relative to the Place of Residence Entitling a Person to Aid.

We, William, etc., proclaim in the name of the North German Confederation, with consent of Federal Council and Reichstag, as follows:

[Remark: The law at first made for the North German Confederation applies, since the establishment of the German Empire, to all Germany with the exception of Bavaria. Therefore under the words occurring in the law, "North German Confederation," "North German, etc.," is to be understood "German Empire, German, etc."]

EQUAL RIGHTS OF SUBJECTS OF THE EMPIRE.

§ 1.

In every federal state every North German is to be treated as an inlander in regard to—

(*a*) The sort and measure of public aid to be given him in case of his needing help.

(*b*) The acquirement and loss of residence entitling him to aid.

The provision in § 7 of the law of November 1, 1867, in regard to the right of migration (Federal Law Paper, p. 55), is no longer applicable to a North German.

[Remark 1 to § 1: As inlanders in the sense of the law are now to be understood all Germans, with the exception of subjects of the Kingdom of Bavaria.

Remark 2: The sort and measure of public aid to be granted in case of need as fixed for Prussia is fixed in the executive law of May 8, 1871, § 1 (shelter, necessaries of life, proper care in cases of sickness, and suitable burial).

Remark 3: § 7 of the right of migration law fixes, that in cases when, after the beginning of the need of public aid, and before the newly settled person has acquired in the place of his sojourn in another State a residence entitling him to aid, and when the continuance of sojourn can be denied, the question between the interested States shall be settled in accordance with the provisions of the Gotha agreement and of the law for the enforcement of the same; and that a claim for payment of costs incurred in supporting such persons can be made against the obligated treasury only when the persons to be expelled have been cared for for more than three months.

§ 7 of the right of migration law naturally remains in force as far as the Kingdom of Bavaria is concerned.]

ORGANS OF PUBLIC AID TO NEEDY PERSONS.

§ 2.

The public assistance of needy North Germans will, in accordance with the further provisions of this law, be given by local poor organizations and State poor organizations.

[Remark to § 2: Public assistance in the sense of the law, is only that given by local poor organizations and State poor organizations, not that given by organized charitable societies, by monasteries, in the way of church aid of the poor, by poor organizations not connected with institutions, and asylums recognized by the States or by public collections.]

LOCAL POOR ORGANIZATIONS.

§ 3.

Local poor organizations can consist of one or more townships and, where estates lie outside of townships, of one or more estates or townships and estates. All the townships and estates united in a local poor organization, in the matters regulated by this law, are regarded as a unit.

[Remark 1 to § 3: Further particulars concerning the nature of local poor organizations are given in § 2 of the executive law of March 8, 1871.

Remark 2: The townships and estates united in a local poor commission are called "joint poor organizations."]

§ 4.

Where distinctly bounded local poor organizations do not already exist, they must be established before July 1, 1871. Before the same date every piece of land not yet belonging to a local poor organization must, after interested parties have been heard, either be attached to a directly adjacent local poor organization by the competent authorities (§ 8) or set apart as an independent poor organization.

STATE POOR ORGANIZATIONS.

§ 5.

The public assistance of needy North Germans, which rests upon no local poor organization, is the duty of state poor organizations. For the fulfillment of this obligation each federal state must, before the 1st of July, 1871, either assume itself the functions of a state poor organization, or establish clearly outlined state poor organizations, where such do not already exist.

These, as a rule, include several local poor organizations, but in exceptional cases can be limited to the district of a single local poor organization.

[Remark 1 to § 5: The state poor organizations, which are restricted to the district of a single poor organization, are the city districts of Berlin, Frankfort on the Main, Königsberg, and Breslau. In these cities the local poor organizations and the state poor organizations are represented by the same officials, namely, the magistracies of these several cities.

Remark 2: The state poor organizations are under obligation for the public support of needy persons only when there is present no responsible local poor organization. This fact, therefore, forms the basis of suit in suits entered against the state poor organizations. If a state poor organization raises the objection that a certain local poor organization is responsible, this is to be regarded as a negative of the basis of suit, and the burden of proof thereupon falls upon the plaintiff local poor organization.

Remark 3: Prussia has established definitely defined state poor organizations, namely:

(1) For the provinces of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Posen, West Prussia, Saxony, and Westphalia, each one state poor organization, represented by a state director, whose seat and tribunal is in Berlin (for Brandenburg), Stettin (for Pomerania), Posen (for Posen), Danzig (for West Prussia), Merseburg (for Saxony), and Münster (for Westphalia).

(2) For the province of Hanover, a state poor organization, represented by a state director, with seat and tribunal in Hanover.

(3) For the Rhine province, a state poor organization, represented by the marshal of the legislature of the province, with seat and tribunal in Düsseldorf.

(4) For the land of Hohenzollern, the state poor organization of the governmental district of Sigmaringen, represented by the state committee, with seat and tribunal in Sigmaringen.

(5) For the city of Berlin, a state poor organization, represented by the magistracy of Berlin.

(6) For the province of Schleswig-Holstein, two state poor organizations: (*a*) State poor organization of Schleswig Holstein, represented by the state director, with seat and tribunal in Kiel. (*b*) State poor organization of the district of the Duchy of Lauenburg, represented by the district committee in Ratzeberg.

(7) For the province of Silesia, two state poor organizations: (*a*) State poor organization for the province of Silesia, represented by the State captain, with seat and tribunal in Breslau. (*b*) State poor organization of the city of Breslau, represented by the magistracy in Breslau.

(8) For the province of Hesse, three state poor organizations: (*a*) That of the governmental district of Cassel, represented by the state director, with seat and tribunal in Cassel. (*b*) That of the governmental district of Wiesbaden, represented by the state director, with seat and tribunal in Wiesbaden. (*c*) The city district of Frankfort on the Main, represented by the district state poor organization of the city of Frankfort on the Main.

(9) For the province of East Prussia, a state poor organization in each county (Kreis) represented by a county poor commission, in each case, with seat and tribunal in the respective county towns, and in addition to these, a state poor organization for the city of Königsberg in Prussia, represented by the local magistracy.]

§ 6.

Poor organizations whose members are all of one and the same religous belief are not poor organizations in the sense of the law.

[Remark to § 6: Poor organizations in the sense of the law shall have distinctly defined local frontiers and shall grant assistance to all needy Germans without regard to their religous belief.]

§ 7.

The local and state poor organizations are, as concerns the exercise of their rights, equal. If a federal state has directly assumed the functions of a state poor organization (§ 5), in all matters regulated by this law it is equivalent to a state poor organization.

[Remark to § 7: Saxony, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Saxe-Weimar, Brunswick, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Anhalt, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, the principalities of Reuss, Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe-Detmold, and the Hanse towns have directly assumed the functions of state poor organizations.]

§ 8.

State laws decide concerning the composition and formation of local organizations and state poor organizations, concerning the character and measure of public assistance to be granted in cases of need, concerning the obtainment of necessary means, concerning in what cases and in what manner the local poor organizations are to

receive help from state poor organizations or other sources, and finally if and how far state poor organizations can use local poor organizations as their organs for the public assistance of the needy.

[Remark to § 8: The state laws regulate the manner and measure of public aid to be granted in cases of necessity. According to the principles fixed in state laws in regard to the measure is fixed the height of the costs to be allowed for the support of needy persons. For Prussia the mode and measure of such assistance is fixed in the Prussian executive law of March 8, 1871.]

ACQUIREMENT OF RESIDENCE ENTITLING A PERSON TO ASSISTANCE.

§ 9.

Residence entitling to assistance is acquired through—

(a) Sojourn.

(b) Marriage.

(c) Descent.

[Remark to § 9: §§ 9 to 21 treat of the acquirement of residence entitling to assistance through sojourn, marriage, and descent. On the other hand, §§ 22 to 27 treat of the loss of residence entitling to assistance through the acquirement of other residence and through two years' absence after the party has completed his twenty-fourth year.]

THROUGH SOJOURN.

§ 10.

Who ever, after the completion of his 24th year, has resided uninterruptedly within the limits of a local poor organization for two years, acquires thereby in the same residence entitling to assistance.

IRemark to § 10: Decision concerning the acquirement of residence entitling to assistance is the naked fact of uninterrupted habitual residence in a place for 2 years subsequent to the completion by the person of his 24th year without regard to civil-law domicile, police registration, the possession of civic rights, the payment of state and communal taxes, entry in imperial, state, and communal voting lists, the conducting of a separate household, or the possession of an independent place of residence, the sojourn of wife and children in another locality, the existence of service, or other dependent conditions.]

§ 11.

The two-year period extends from the day on which the sojourn began.

By entrance in a hospital or similar institution, however, sojourn is not began.

Where, for country or city servants, laborers, employés, lessees, or other tenants, termines for fixing the change of residence are fixed by law or local usage, the customary moving termine is accepted as the beginning of sojourn, in so far as between the termine and the day on which the sojourn actually begins, not more than seven days intervene.

[Remark 1 to § 11, par. 1: The day on which the sojourn begins, in reckoning the two-year period, is counted in, whereas the last day, in the course of which the sojourn terminates, is not counted.

Remark 2 to par. 2: The provision of par. 2 does not apply to officials, physicians, servants, etc., residing in such institutions.

Remark 3 to par. 3: Under tenants are meant only renters of dwellings, not persons who hire themselves, as the latter fall under the heading "servants or laborers."

Remark 4: The provisions of par. 3 refer only to the persons therein distinctly mentioned, not to such persons as live in such households without participating in the residence which entitles to assistance.

Remark 5: If the change of residence does not take place on a fixed day, but extends over a termine of several days, the seven-day interval, which is to be taken into account, begins with the day following the last day of the termine.]

§ 12.

If the sojourn is begun under circumstances through which the acceptance of free intention in the choice of the place of sojourn is impossible, the two-year period begins with the day on which these circumstances cease.

If such circumstances arise subsequent to the beginning of sojourn during the continuance of such circumstances, the progress of the two-year period is interrupted.

[Remark to §12: The acceptance of the existence of free intention in the choice of the place of sojourn is excluded: (*a*) In the case of insane persons suffering from permanent mental derangement, without exception; (*b*) in the case of persons suffering from other mental diseases, melancholy, imbecility, deaf and dumb persons placed under guardianship, if they lack the necessary power of recognition and will for deciding for themselves; (*c*) in the case of prisoners during the period of their detention; (*d*) in the case of persons who, in consequence of police orders at the time of prevailing epidemics, must remain in quarantine or confined in their dwellings during the period of such quarantine or confinement.]

§ 13

As interruption of sojourn will not be regarded voluntary absence, when from the circumstances under which it occurred the intention to continue the sojourn is clear, mere declarations do not suffice as proof; only the facts upon which the absence is based are decisive for judging the question of intent to continue the sojourn. Journeys undertaken for the purpose of making visits, for the carrying on of business, in the exercise of science, in the prosecution of one's profession, for the recovery of health, do not interrupt the sojourn in a place which is recognizable as the middle point of the person's industrial existence and activity.

[Remark 2: Which place is the place of customary sojourn in the case of workmen who are employed away from their homes and who return only periodically to their families? If the workmen are thus permanently employed in service and have sleeping accommodations at the place of employment, then the place of service must be regarded as the place of customary sojourn. If they are permanently employed at work away from their homes, then the facts which require their periodical return to their families (e. g. the going for clean linen and food, the intention of making a visit, etc.) are the criteria of the question if the place of residence of the family, or the place of employment, is the place of customary sojourn. The regular weekly going for body linen and food necessary for support will be regarded as establishing the intent to continue sojourn at the place of the family's residence. On the other hand, the mere intention of workmen to visit their families excludes the acceptance of this interpretation. The answer to the question, therefore, depends simply and solely on the fact, if in the causes inducing the return to the family, the intent to continue sojourn at the place of the family's residence is evident. If the intent is evident, the place of the family's residence must be regarded as the place of customary sojourn, otherwise the place of occupation.]

§ 14

The continuance of the two-year period (§ 10) is interrupted during the time when the person is being assisted by a poor organization.

It is interrupted by an application for recognition of the obligation to receive a needy person, made by a poor organization on the ground of the provision of § 5 of the night of emigration law of November 1, 1867. The interruption begins with the day on which the application is forwarded to the poor organization interested or to the chief officials of one of the interested poor organizations.

The interruption is regarded as not having existed if the application is not further passed within two months, or if the same is unsuccessful.

[Remark 1 to § 14: The continuance of the two-year period is interrupted during the line of public assistance granted: (*a*) by a German local poor organization (exclusive of Bavaria); (*b*) by a German state poor organization (exclusive of Bavaria); (*c*) by a German state which has directly assumed the functions of a state poor organization; (*d*) by a Prussian county (kreis) which in accordance with § 31 of the executive law of March 8, 1871, has directly assumed the expense of nursing the sick poor in the place of a local poor organization.

Assistance given by churches, private persons, or charitable societies interfere with the continuance of the period just as little as assistance given by institutions, charitable asylums, cloisters, etc., not connected with a poor organization.

Remark 2: The time of assistance begins with the day on which the aiding of the needy party by the poor organization actually begins or, in case a delay occurs, with the day on which the need of aid was recognized and agreed to.

Remark 3: The continuance of the period is interrupted also in the case when some one does not in his own person receive aid but in the person of his wife and children and in the persons of all those who belong to the residence which entitles him to assistance.

Remark 4: Difficult of answer is the question for what period of time single acts of assistance in the way of supplying articles of clothing, burning materials, money, edibles, etc., are to be calculated as granted. In such cases the actual conditions causing the assistance are to be taken as decisive.

Remark 5: Aid during whose continuance the progress of the two-year period is interrupted must be granted as public charity to the poor for the relief of necessity. Aid granted by one poor organization with the purpose of injuring another previously responsible poor organization by interrupting the progress of the two-year period, shall be regarded as not granted, as in such case this aid is not an act of public charity to the poor in the sense of the law. The progress of the two-year period is not interrupted during the continuance of such aid.

Remark 6: The progress of the two-year period is not interrupted by (*a*) aid granted in accordance with law by a county (kreis) to the family of a person belonging to the reserves who is summoned to the colors; (*b*) aid granted from any disposable official fund to a sick official; (*c*) aid granted by his superior authorities to a sick official in the form of free admittance to a hospital; (*d*) aid given in the form of exemption from taxation, because in such acts of assistance not an act of actual aid of the poor is recognized, but an act of obligation or liberality

Remark 7: Paragraph 2 of § 14 speaks of the interruption of the two years' period (Unterbrechung der Frist); paragraph one refers to the temporary interruption of this period (Ruhen der Frist). In the former case (Unterbrechung der Frist—permanent interruption of the period) the period of time which had elapsed prior to the interruption is not again taken into account in estimating the continuance of the two years' period, while in the latter case the period which had elapsed prior to the interruption and the period subsequent to the termination of the interruption are estimated together in measuring the progress of the two years' period.

Remark 8: § 5 of the right-of-emigration law of November 1, 1867, reads: "If, subject to settlement, the necessity of public assistance arises before the newly arrived person has acquired a residence entitling him to assistance in the place of his sojourn, and if the community claims that the assistance is necessitated from other grounds than an only temporary incapacity for labor, the continuance of sojourn can be forbidden."

So long, therefore, as the necessity of assistance can not be proven, the application for the transfer of responsibility to the other party does not carry with it an interruption of the continuance of the period.

Remark 9 to par. 3: In Prussia the application must be made to the competent district committee (Bezirksausschuss). The term fixed for prosecution is two months, reckoned from the day of rejection of the claim by the opposing poor organization.

Remark 10 to par. 3: The failure of the claim is recognized when the same is not pushed to a legal decision, or when the same is rejected as unfounded by the district committee.]

THROUGH MARRIAGE.

§ 15.

From the moment of marriage the wife shares with her husband his residence, entitling to assistance.

[Remark to § 15: From the moment of marriage the wife, with her children (legitimate and illegitimate), shares her husband's residence, entitling to assistance, even when prior to marriage, in her own person or in that of her children, she received public assistance. On the other hand, a woman who marries a state pauper (mit einem Landarmen die Ehe schliesst) becomes, with her children, a state pauper.]

§ 16.

Widows and legally divorced women retain the residence entitling to assistance which they possessed when their marriage was dissolved, until they have lost the same in accordance with the provisions of §§ 22 (No. 2), 23–27, or have acquired another residence entitling to assistance in accordance with the provisions of §§ 9–14.

[Remark to § 16: Widows and legally divorced women, who keep the residence entitling to assistance which they possessed when their marriage was dissolved, can lose the same by two years' absence, which is to be calculated from a point of time subsequent to the dissolution of the marriage, and, in like manner, can acquire a new residence entitling to assistance only by a two years' sojourn, to be calculated from a point of time subsequent to the dissolution of the marriage. In this calculation no allowance will be made, therefore, for the time prior to the dissolution of the marriage during which the wife with her husband was, respectively, absent or present.

The same applies in regard to the acquirement and loss of the residence entitling to assistance for basely deserted wives and for separated wives mentioned in § 17.]

§ 17.

As independent, as far as the acquirement and loss of residence entitling to assistance are concerned, is regarded the wife—even during the continuance of the married relation—if and so long as the husband maliciously desents her; furthermore, if and so long as she, during imprisonment of her husband, or in consequence of the distinctly given permission of the same, or of permission granted to her by the laws of the state, lives apart from him and supports herself without his aid.

[Remark 1 to § 17: The residence entitling to assistance independently acquired by the wife subsequent to malicious desertion or separation is again lost by the reunion of the couple. The wife then again shares the residence entitling to aid of her husband. (*Vide* Rem. to § 16.)

Remark 2: "Under malicious desertion (böaliche Verlassung—malitiosa desertio)" is to be understood the voluntary continued absence of the husband at an unknown place or a place beyond the reach of the court. The cause of the malicious desertion is not to be considered.

Remark 3: A separation mutually agreed to can develop into a case of malicious desertion, if the wife demands a reunion and the husband, distinctly refusing the same or taking no notice thereof, chooses an unknown place of sojourn.

Remark 4: The distinct consent to permanent separation required by § 17 can not be replaced by the consent indicated by silence in order to induce the consequences stated in § 17, because silence does not prove the intent of permanent separation.

Remark 5: For independent acquirement and loss of residence entitling to assistance on the part of wife, it is necessary that the married pair live separated and that the wife supports herself without the aid of the husband. Such aid is not regarded as given when the husband supports his legitimate children at his own cost.]

THROUGH DESCENT.

§ 18.

Legitimate children and children legally regarded as legitimate share, subject to the provisions of § 20, the residence entitling to assistance of the father so long as they have not lost the same in accordance with §§ 22 (No. 2), 23–27, or until they have acquired a residence entitling to assistance in accordance with the provisions of §§ 9–14.

They keep this residence entitling to assistance also after the death of the father up to the points of time referred to above, except as provided for in § 19.

[Remark 1 to § 18: Children regarded as legitimate by the general state laws of Prussia (Th. II, Tit. II, §§ 596, 598, 603, 681) are legitimated and adopted children.

Remark 2: Children share the residence entitling to assistance of the father until they have completed their 24th year, even when they are already married and conduct their own household. After completion of the 24th year children lose the residence entitling to assistance which they have previously shared only by two years' absence or by acquiring a residence entitling to assistance elsewhere.]

§ 19.

When the mother survives the father, then, aftert he dissolution of the marriage by thed eath of the father, legitimate children and children looked upon by the laws as legitimate share the residence entitling to assistance of the mother to the extent fixed in § 18.

In cases covered by § 17 the same applies, so far as in the separation of the household, the children have followed the mother.

[Remark 1 to § 19: Concerning what residence entitling to assistance the mother retains after the death of her husband, and how the two years' period necessary for the acquisition and loss of such residence is to be reckoned, see remark to § 16.

Remark 2: Children born after the separation hold a like position in this matter to children which, in the separation, follow the mother.

Remark 3: In case of separation and subsequent death of the mother, the children retain the residence of the mother until they are received back into the household of the father or acquire another residence entitling to assistance after completion of the 24th year.]

§ 20.

In cases of divorce, legitimate children and children looked upon by the laws as legitmate, share the residence entitling to assistance of the mother to the extent prescribed in § 18, if they are given to the mother.

[Remark to § 20: In the judgment of divorce it is decided if the education of the children is to be entrusted to the mother or not. The education of the children will be entrusted to the mother if it is found that not she, but the husband, is the only guilty party. If both are guilty, it must be fixed in the judgment to which of the two the education is to be entrusted.

§ 21.

Illegitimate children share to the extent fixed in § 18, the residence entitling to assistance of the mother.

[Remark to § 21: If the mother has not yet completed her 24th year, the residence entitling to assistance, which the illegitimate children share with their mother, is naturally identical with that of the grandfather, and, in case the latter is dead, with that of the grandmother. After the mother has completed her 24th year her illegitimate children keep the residence entitling to assistance which they inherit from her, even when they, after the mother's death, are brought up and supported in the house of their grandparents, until after completing their 24th year they become competent to acquire another independent residence entitling to assistance.]

§ 22.

Residence entitling to assistance can be lost by (1) acquisition of another such residence, (2) two years uninterrupted absence subsequent to completion of the 24th year.

[Remark to § 22: §§ 22–27 treat of the loss of residence entitling to assistance. Such residence is also lost by the contraction of a marriage between a woman possessing the same and a state pauper (Landarme).]

§ 23.

The two year period is counted from the day on which the absence begins.

Through entrance in a hospital of any sort, however, absence is not to be considered as begun.

Where, for country or town servants, laborers, employees, lessees, or other renters, the change of residence is fixed by law or local usage for fixed termines, the ordinary moving day is to be taken as the beginning of absence, in so far as between this termine and the day on which the absence actually began not more than seven days have intervened.

[Remark 1 to § 23: The day on which the absence begins in reckoning the two year period will be considered as a full day.

Remark 2: In regard to the provisions of pars. 2 and 3, see remarks 2, 3, 4, and 5 to § 11, which are here also to be observed.]

§ 24.

If the absence is caused by circumstances which render free will in the choice of abode impossible, then the two year period begins only with the day on which these circumstances cease to exert an influence.

If such circumstances arise after the beginning of the absence, the two year period is interrupted during their continuance.

[Remark to § 24: The remark to § 12 finds here also application.]

§ 25.

As interruption of absence a return will not be regarded if from the circumstances under which it occurs it is evident that the intention is not to remain permanently.

[Remark to § 25: The return warrants the presumption of interruption of absence. This presumption is negatived when the return takes place under circumstances which render evident the intention of not remaining permanently. Remark 1 to § 13 applies here also.]

§ 26.

The appointment or transfer of a pastor, teacher, public or private official, as well as of a military person serving not merely for the fulfillment of his military obligation in the federal army or in the federal war navy, is not to be regarded as a circumstance excluding self-will in the choice of above.

[Remark to § 26: The appointment or transfer of a military person (exclusive of one-year volunteers) serving as a volunteer in the army or navy is not regarded as a circumstance excluding self-will in the choice of abode, because the volunteer, without having the obligation, has voluntarily entered the army or navy, and therefore is not serving to fulfill a military obligation.

On the other hand, the appointment or transfer of a reservist called to the colors (for practice or for war) is to be regarded as a circumstance excluding free choice on his part. See further rem. to § 12.]

§ 27.

The continuance of the two-year period (§ 22) is interrupted during the period during which public aid is granted by a poor organization.

It is interrupted (unterbrochen) by the application for recognition of the obligation to receive back a needy person, made by a poor organization on the ground of the provision of § 5 of the law of November 1, 1867, concerning the right of emigration.

The interruption begins with day on which the application is sent to the interested poor organization, or to the presiding officers ot one of the interested poor organizations.

The interruption is regarded as not having occurred if the application is not, within two months, pressed further, or when the same has been futile.

[Remark to § 27: The remarks to § 14 apply here also.]

RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS OF POOR ORGANIZATIONS.

§ 28.

Every needy north German must preliminarily be aided by the local poor organization of the place in whose district he is present when the necessity for aid begins. The preliminary aid is given conditionally, with the reserved right of claim upon the poor organization which is responsible for the payment of costs incurred or for the return of the needy person.

[Remark 1 to § 28: In § 28 the obligation to give preliminary support which attachas to the preliminarily responsible poor organization corresponds with the right of the same to claim the repayment of the costs thus incurred, and the removal of the needy person by the poor organization which is definitely responsible.

Remark 2: The preliminarily responsible poor organization is that one in whose district the necessity of aid arose in a manner recognizable by the local authorities; the definitely responsible poor organization is the poor organization of the place of residence entitling the party to assistance, or in the absence of such, the state poor organization in whose district the public aid is granted.

Remark 3: As neglect of the preliminary assistance obligation is to be regarded as refusal of aid, and especially the pushing on of the party, *i. e.*, the ordering of a needy person to go forward into the territory of another poor organization. This neglect is ground for demands against the expelling poor organization for preliminary support or further payment of costs incurred by another poor organization in supporting the expelled person.

Remark 4: The expelling poor organization will not be permitted to make the following excuses: (*a*) The needy person was also forced upon it; (*b*) the need of aid had already arisen before the person was moved forward into the territory of another poor organization; (*c*) the expelled person himself demanded to be sent forward, because preliminary assistance is a pressing necessity and because the obligation to render preliminary assistance must be fulfilled. In the same way the definitely obligated poor organization can not claim that the preliminary assistance should have been referred to it.

Remark 5: The severest form of removal is actual expulsion, which, on the ground of § 6 of the right of emigration law of November 1, 1867, cannot take place until either the community on which the claim has been made has expressed its willingness to accept the person, or at least until a decision has been given, which can be temporarily enforced.

Remark 6: The forms of removal are very different. The facts upon which each case is based decide if the poor organization in refusing to assist a needy person and ordering him forward has made itself guilty of a breach of obligation as prescribed in § 28. The characteristics of a removal giving ground for claims are that the preliminarily obligated poor organization, by breach of its obligation—placed upon it by § 28—to needy persons, instead of granting them the necessary aid, refers them for assistance to a poor organization not under obligation to render the service, thus being thereby compelled to assume the care of persons whose need already existed. But such expelling poor organization can not be subjected to claims from the definitely obligated poor organization on account of such expulsion.

Remark 7: The preliminarily obligated poor organization has the choice of prosecuting its claim for repayment of costs incurred, either against the definitely responsible poor organization in accordance with § 28, or against a third party in accordance with § 62.

Remark 8: If a necessity for help arises, the poor organization in whose district it occurs must perform its obligation to render prompt assistance if it does not wish to make itself liable to disadvantageous consequences—disciplinary or through the courts—arising from a refusal of assistance. For this reason it is given the right of direct claim on the definitely responsible poor organization, and for the same reason it is provided in § 59 that in case of the poor organization being partially or entirely unable to pay the costs finally imposed upon it by the decision of superior officials the state to which it belongs is directly or indirectly responsible for the payment. If the claim is made on the definitely responsible poor organization, it can demand repayment from a third responsible organization.

Remark 9: Cases of need requiring aid are of many sorts. When the necessity is to be regarded as existing it is to be decided by the facts of the case, and in cases of dispute must be decided by the competent authorities. In general, one can say that there exists a need of aid when a person lacks shelter or the necessities of life, or the necessary nursing in cases of sickness, and has not the means at the time with which to secure the same; furthermore, when some one has died without leaving money, and the family can not bring together enough to pay for proper burial.]

§ 29.

When persons employed as servants, journeymen, assistants, apprentices fall sick in place of their service, the local poor organization of the place of service is under obligation to grant to such sick persons the necessary care and attendance. A claim against another poor organization for repayment of the costs incurred in care and attendance, or for receiving back the needy person, can be made only when the nursing of the invalid is continued for more than six weeks, and only for the time in excess of this period.

Information concerning the sickness must be given, at latest, seven days before the expiration of these six weeks to the poor organization under obligation to support the person; otherwise payment of costs can be demanded only for the time beginning seven days after the information has been received.

Pregnancy is not to be regarded as sickness in the sense of the foregoing provision.

[Remark 1 to § 29: While § 28 fixes for the system of caring for the poor the guiding principle that the poor organization, having the preliminary assistance obligation, can demand of the definitely responsible poor organization in whose territory a needy person has residence entitling him to such assistance, or from the state

poor organization in whose district the person was present when the necessity of assistance arose, the payment of costs incurred in aiding such needy person not possessing residence entitling him to aid in the place where such is rendered, or the reception of the person from the poor organization granting preliminary assistance. § 29 fixes an exception, that in the case of servants, journeymen, assistants, and apprentices, who become ill in the place of their service, the local poor organization of the place of their service is under obligation to grant to them, during the first 6 weeks of their illness, the necessary care and attendance, and that a claim can be made on the definitely responsible poor organization for payment of costs so incurred or for reception of the needy person only for a period subsequent to these six weeks. A necessary preliminary for making such claim good is that the poor organization of the place of service shall have given punctual notice to the definitely responsible poor organization, *i. e.*, at latest 7 days before the expiration of the 6 weeks referred to. This provision does not apply to the families of servants, etc., but it extends to foreigners.

Remark 2: If the poor organization of the place of service does not fulfill the obligation imposed upon it by § 29 by refusing aid or pushing the person on into the territory of another organization, claim can be made on it by the organization assuming the care of the needy person, naturally also by the definitely responsible poor organization, because this is not under obligation to grant care and attendance during the first 6 weeks. In case of expulsions (abschilbüngen) the poor organization providing for the needy person can only make claims upon the expelling organization, not upon the poor organization of the residence entitling to assistance, for the payment of expenses incurred in care and attendance during the first 6 weeks of sickness.

Remark 3: When the servant etc., after being taken sick, voluntarily leaves the place of service without applying for help to the local poor organization thereof, no claim can be made upon it for the costs of care and attendance, because no breach of obligation on its part exists. It is, therefore, a necessary preliminary of claim against the poor organization of the place of service that it shall have failed to fulfil its obligation in refusing to grant public assistance.

Remark 4: For the claim, not the naked fact of illness, but the need of assistance induced by illness, is relevant. The poor organization of the place of service can not, therefore, excuse itself by claiming that the servant, etc., before coming from another place.

Remark 5: § 29 makes, in regard to the principle laid down in remark 1, an exception only concerning care and attendance. If, however, a servant dies during the continuance of his service at the place of service, payment of the burial expenses incurred is to be asked of the poor organization of the residence entitling the deceased to assistance.

Remark 6: Another requisite to the application of § 29 is that the servant shall have been actually in service at the time when, owing to sickness, the need of help arose and public aid was applied for. The obligation of the poor organization of the place of service to grant care and attendance does not, however, exist when the application for public aid, based upon sickness, is not made until after the termination of the sickness, naturally with the proviso that the service has not been terminated solely or partially on account of sickness.

Remark 7: Under the term servant (Gesinde) are included only such domestics as are permanently employed in the household of the employer, who live and are fed there. Persons who live in a family for the purpose of performing household and industrial services, but who are not engaged, are not regarded as servants (Gesinde), *e. g.*, wet nurses who are employed only for the nourishment of sucklings, not for household services.

Remark 8: Under the term business assistants are to be understood technically educated workmen (in the sense of the trade law) for the carrying of their business.

Remark 9: The six-week period, during which the poor organization of the place of service is responsible for care and attendance, begins not with the day on which the person fell sick, but on the day on which the necessity of aid, caused by sickness, is recognized by the authorities of poor organization of the place of service.

Remark 10: The nursing of servants, etc., must be continued uninterruptedly for 6 weeks before any claims can be made on the definitely responsible poor organization. The time during which the nursing is interrupted by private nursing is not to be taken into account in calculating the 6-week period.

Remark 11: Pregnancy, inclusive of confinement, under normal conditions, is not regarded as sickness in the sense of the law.

If an abnormal condition exists and a disease is present is a *quæstio facti* and is to be decided in accordance with medical principles.

If pregnant and confined servants, on account of lack of shelter, need of necessaries of life, need of nursing in connection with the normal progress of pregnancy or confinement, become in need of assistance, the provisions of § 28 become applicable, *i. e.*, the poor organization of the place of service must assume the care of the person as the party having the preliminary obligation, and then has the right to demand of the definitely responsible poor organization payment for expenses incurred and reception of the person.

The latter may object that a sickness caused by the abnormal condition of pregnancy or some other sickness exists.

Remark 12: The burden placed upon the communities by the provisions of § 29 is considerably lightened by the law for insurance against sickness of June 15, 1883, in accordance with which costs incurred in caring for sick journeymen, business assistants, apprentices, and servants are borne by organized sick treasuries (Krankenkassen). The poor organization of the place of service, whose obligation for care of the sick during the first 6 weeks after the need of assistance has appeared is retained by § 29, has in most cases in which it must assume the responsibility regress against the sick treasury or against the employer who has neglected the registration. Before the insurance against sickness law was passed the townships (Gemeinde) had redress only against the journeymen, etc., cared for and their relatives.

§ 30.

For the payment of costs incurred in assisting a needy North German, so far as the same do not in accordance with § 29 fall as a burden on the local poor organization of the place of service, the obligated party is:

(*a*) If the assisted person has residence entitling him to assistance, the local poor organization of such residence.

(*b*) If the assisted person has no residence entitling him to assistance, that State poor organization in whose district he was present when the need of assistance began, or, in case he was dismissed in destitute condition from a penitentiary, hospital, etc., that state poor organization from whose territory he was sent to such institution.

The amount of costs to be paid depends upon the principles in force at the place when the assistance was rendered, in regard to the public assistance of needy persons, but no allowance can be made for general executive costs of poor institutions or special fees for assistance rendered by regularly employed physicians.

For expenses repeatedly incurred in connection with public aid of needy persons, whose daily or weekly amount can be expressed in a lump sum (*e. g.*, nursing rates in hospitals or poorhouses), a tariff can be prepared and published in each federal state, either for the entire state's territory, as a whole or for different districts, and claims for repayment can not exceed the rates thus fixed.

[Remark 1 to § 30: § 30 treats, in par. 1, of poor organizations as legally obligate subjects. Under obligation for damages (erstattungspflichtig) is:

(1) In the first place the local poor organization of the residence entitling to assistance.

(2) In the absence of residence entitling to assistance, the state poor organization, namely: (*a*) That one in whose district the needy person was present when the need of assistance arose, (*b*) in case he was dismissed in a destitute condition from a penitentiary, hospital, etc., that state poor organization from whose territory he was sent to such institution.

The local poor organization of the place of residence entitling to assistance is also responsible for costs in the case when state poor organizations, on the ground of state legislative provisions or other organizations (*e. g.*, the Prussian country organizations), on the ground of § 31 of the executive law of March 8, 1871, are responsible for the care of certain sick persons (*e. g.*, insane persons) and for providing the costs of attendance. In such cases the local poor organization is the next responsible party and the only one which can be reached through the courts to which redress against the above-mentioned organizations is left.

Remark 2: The obligation for costs attaches to state poor organizations first when the person assisted has no residence entitling him to assistance. The burden of proving this rests upon the local poor organization making the claim on the state poor organization. If the proof, which may be very difficult of obtainment, is to be regarded as conclusive, it must be decided by the competent authorities with due reference to the facts and the testimony. In general it can be said that the state poor organization is to be regarded as responsible when the testimony clearly shows that there is no well-founded doubt of the state poor quality of the person assisted.

Remark 3: As responsible for the costs is to be regarded that state poor organization in whose district the necessity of assistance for the person assisted arose in a manner recognizable by the authorities. The refusal (Abschiebung) of aid to a state pauper has for a state poor organization the same legal consequences as apply to such action among local poor organizations. See remarks to § 28. Irrelevant for the prosecution of the obligation to pay costs is the circumstance as to whether or not the state pauper actually was in need of assistance in the district of another state poor organization without asking for public assistance or without the necessity arising in a manner recognizable by the authorities.

Remark 4: Which is the responsible state poor organization when those state paupers who otherwise would share the residence entitling to assistance of another (of the husband, the father, or the mother), who, living separated from them in the territory of another state poor organization, become in need of assistance there? The answer to this question is that that state poor organization is responsible in whose territory the person's need of assistance first appeared in recognizable manner. This state poor organization, thus obligated, is also responsible for the person whose residence entitling to assistance, would otherwise be shared, when the same (husband, father, or mother), during the time when assistance is rendered to one of his dependents, is also in need of assistance.

Remark 5: The responsibility of the competent state poor organization continues uninterruptedly until the necessity for help ceases, even when the state pauper moves into the territory of another state poor organization.

Remark 6: For those State paupers dismissed in destitute condition from prisons, hospitals, etc., as an exception to the rule that state poor organizations are responsible for costs, from which he was sent to the institution. It is irrelevant which state officials ordered the delivery to the institution.

Remark 7: Par. 2 of § 30 treats of the extent of the costs to be allowed. The same depends upon the principles in force at the place of preliminary assistance concerning the measure thereof. In disputed cases the poor organizations making the claims must so explain the circumstances justifying the costs in excess of fixed tariff rates that the deciding authorities may be able to see the justice and necessity of the costs. Furthermore see Rem. to § 8.

If the poor organization rendering preliminary assistance to the needy person does not have him cared for and nursed in its own territory, the increased costs incurred thereby can be charged against the definitely responsible poor organization only when this is absolutely necessary for the removal of a disease (*e. g.* on account of operations which can not be performed in their territory).

Remark 8: In calculating the costs to be paid by a poor organization no allowance can be made for the general executive costs of institutions for the poor or for the fees of regularly employed physicians. By the term general executive costs are covered all those costs arising from the general management of the institution without special regard for a particular individual. Accordingly claim can be made only for the payment of such charges as are specially incurred in caring for the particular individual assisted. In the case of unusual expenditures in disputed instances, the poor organization making the demand must prove the facts of the case, showing the necessity of the expenditure in the particular instance.

Remark 9: Under the term institutions for the poor are to be understood all institutions existing in the public interest for the purpose of caring for the poor.

Remark 10: Par. 3 of § 30 treats of the tariffs which can be prepared for frequently recurring expenditures connected with the assistance of the poor, to whose daily or weekly amount a fixed rate can be given. Such tariffs are decisive only when they have been fixed by competent state authorities. Tariffs made by the officials of the place where the assistance is given have no binding force for the poor organizations responsible for payment of costs. Tariffs fixed by state laws are absolutely decisive only for poor organizations belonging to the same state.]

§ 31.

The poor organization which is responsible according to § 30 for payment of costs is under obligation to receive a needy North German when the assistance was granted for other reasons than merely temporary inability to work. (§ 5 of the right of migration law of Nov. 1, 1867. Federal Law Paper, p. 55.)

[Remark 1 to § 31: § 5 of the right of migration law of November 1, 1867, reads: "If the necessity of public assistance arises after the arrival of a person, before such newly arrived person has obtained in the place of his sojourn residence entitling to assistance (the home right), and if the community proves that assistance is necessitated by causes other than merely temporary incapacity for work, the continuance of sojourn can be forbidden."

While in this § 5 the right of preliminary assistance is expressed and permission is given to forbid the continuance of sojourn for causes other than mere incapacity for work, § 31 fixes the obligation of the definitely responsible poor organization to accept under its own care, for like reasons, the needy person. It is to be well observed, however, that the actual expulsion of a needy person from one place can never take place before there has been received either the declaration of acceptance of the other community or a preliminary judgment concerning the obligation to care for the person (see § 6 of the right of migration law of November 1, 1867).

Remark 2: In contrast with a continued need of assistance a temporary need is to be recognized when it is apparent that within a fixed and not too extended period of time the need for assistance will cease. Thus as a rule in the case of acute illness it is regarded that only a temporary need of assistance exists. When otherwise such temporary need of assistance exists it must be decided by the attendant circumstances.

Remark 3: The obligation to accept a person does not arise until the need of assistance of the person to be accepted is made clear to the proper authorities. The mere fear of future poverty and consequent need of assistance can not obviate the obligation to receive a person.

Remark 4: The claim to acceptance by the other party is extinguished so soon as the causes cease to exist from which the necessity of assisting a needy person began

and so soon as, according to human calculations, it seems probable that the causes will not again appear in the near future.

Remark 5: It is irrelevant to the obligation to accept a person if the assistance which has become necessary is a continued one or only a periodical, one returning at fixed intervals, as well as if the assistance which has become necessary has been granted by the poor organization of the place of sojourn or by another poor organization.]

§ 32.

The poor organization, under obligation to receive a needy North German, can, so far as is not otherwise provided in §§ 55 and 56, demand the taking of such person into its direct care.

The costs of delivery must be borne by the obligated poor organization.

If the responsible poor organization demands the delivery of a needy person, and this is delayed or refused through the fault of the poor organization giving preliminary assistance, the latter loses thereby claim to repayment of costs for the period of such delay or refusal.

[Remark 1 to § 32: The obligation to receive a needy person, treated of in § 31, corresponds with the right, stated in § 32, of the definitely responsible poor organization to demand the delivery of a needy person into its care.

Remark 2: The poor organization, under obligation to receive a needy person, can demand the delivery only in case the aiding of the person to be received has been necessitated by causes other than mere temporary incapacity for work. (See remark to § 31.) The delivery, therefore, of a person grown needy merely through temporary incapacity for work can not be demanded, and, *i. e.*, not with the legal consequence that, in case of delay or refusal to deliver, claim to the payment of costs for the time lapsing during such delay or refusal is terminated.

Remark 3: The delivery must be accomplished by the poor organization of the needy person's place of sojourn, but the costs of delivery are to be borne by the poor organization under obligation to receive the person. The former can not escape its obligation to deliver the person, by claiming that it gives permission to the organization demanding the delivery itself, in the place of the needy person's sojourn, to take the person and remove him.

Remark 4: In a demand intended to have the consequence mentioned in § 32, par. 3 (*i. e.*, origination of claim to payment of costs), the delivery must be distinctly demanded. The application must also be made to the competent authorities, *i. e.*, those representing the poor organization of the place of sojourn of the person to be given up, if it is intended to found a claim for the payment of costs.

Remark 5: The delivery refused through the fault of the poor organization, depends upon the facts causing the refusal.]

§ 33.

If a North German, who has no residence entitling him assistance, must, upon demand of foreign state officials, be received from abroad, and if at the time of reception of such person he is in need of assistance, or if such need arises within seven days from the time of his reception, then the obligation to pay the costs of assistance, or to receive the needy person rests upon that federal state within which the needy person has had his last residence entitling to assistance, with the reservation, that any federal state may, in accordance with its laws, transfer this obligation to its poor organizations.

[Remark 1 to § 33: § 33 treats of the obligation of that German state in whose territory a needy German state pauper after his reception from abroad has had his last residence entitling to assistance, to pay costs and to receive the person. A prerequisite to this obligation is: (*a*) that the foreign state officials have demanded the reception of the person, and (*b*) that a necessity of assistance existed at the time of the person's delivery, or arose within seven days thereafter.

Remark 2: Under the term "foreign state officials" is to be understood those foreign officials who are competent to demand the reception of a needy person.

Remark 3: As foreign countries (Ausland) in the sense of the law are meant those countries which are not subject to the provisions of the law concerning residence entitling to assistance. In the sense of § 33 the Kingdom of Bavaria and Alsace-Lorraine are foreign countries.

Remark 4: For the payment of costs of assistance, and for the acceptance of the needy person is that state responsible within whose territory the needy person has had his last residence entitling to assistance. The fact that the needy person has had such residence entitling to assistance exactly at the time when he left Germany for a foreign country, is not a prerequisite to this obligation. If at that time the needy person was a state pauper, that state is under obligation in whose territory he had his last residence entitling to assistance; not that state upon whose state poor organizations the obligation of public assistance of such state pauper rested before his departure.

Remark 5: Prussia has transferred the obligations stated in § 33 to its state poor organizations, through § 37 of the Prussian Executive Law of March 8, 1871, which reads: "If a German who has no residence entitling him to assistance must, upon demand of foreign state officials, be accepted from abroad, the obligation to pay the costs of assistance, or to receive the needy person rests upon that state poor organization in whose territories the needy person has had his last residence entitling him to assistance. If this place of residence can not be ascertained, then that state poor organization is under obligation to bear the costs in whose district the need for assistance has arisen.]

PROCEDURE IN DISPUTES OF POOR ORGANIZATIONS—PRELIMINARY STEPS.

§ 34.

If a local poor organization is obliged to assist a needy North German who does not possess residence entitling him to assistance in its territory, the local poor organization must first carefully interrogate the person assisted in regard to his home, family, and place of sojourn, and then give notice to the responsible poor organization of the claim for repayment of costs incurred or to be incurred—in order to avoid loss of right of claim—within six months after the beginning of the granting of assistance, inquiring if the claim will be recognized.

If the responsible poor organization can not be ascertained, the application for recognition of the claim for payment of costs must be made, within the above-mentioned period of six months, to the competent official superiors of the interested poor organization.

If, according to the opinion of the poor organization granting the assistance, the circumstances of the case justify the refusal to the person assisted of the right to continue his sojourn, in accordance with § 5 of the right of migration law of November 1, 1867, (Federal Law Papers, p. 55, etc.), and if the local poor organization wishes to make use of this power, this must be distinctly stated in the notice given.

[Remark 1 to § 34: §§ 34–39 inclusive, treat of procedure in disputes of poor organizations.

Remark 2: The federal office for home affairs has decided that not only local poor organizations but also state poor organizations in the matter of establishing a claim to payment of costs and in order to avoid loss thereof, must make their application within six months, calculating from the day on which the assistance was begun.

Remark 3: Claim to reception of a needy person is not subject to the limitation fixed in § 34 in case of neglect of the prescribed giving of notice.

Remark 4: In case of delay of notice, only the claim to payment of costs which were incurred in the period prior to the last 6 months is outlawed.

Remark 5: The mere giving of notice shall have the effect of securing the claim for the future. After timely notice has been given the claims can be made at any time.

Remark 6: The notice must be given to the poor organization responsible for the payment of costs. If such can not be found, the claim is to be filed with the competent superior authorities. This superior authority is, in Prussia, the royal governmental president of the governmental district to which the applicant poor organization belongs.

Remark 7: Against a suit brought within 6 months the excuse can not be raised for the purpose of invalidating the application that the notice and inquiry prescribed in § 34 were neglected.

Remark 8: In case a local poor organization on the strength of § 5 of the right of emigration law of November 1, 1867, wishes to expel a newly arrived needy person, this must be distinctly stated in the notice, without such previous notice and without previous declaration of its willingness to accept the person on the part of the notified poor organization, the actual expulsion of a needy person does not take place.]

§ 35.

If within 14 days after the receipt of the notice an affirmative answer thereto is not received from the notified poor organization, this shall be regarded as a refusal of the claim.

§ 36.

Every poor organization has the right to prosecute its claims against another poor organization through the channel designated in this law independently and directly before the authorities competent to decide thereon and to enforce their decision.

[Remark to § 36: In East and West Prussia, Brandenburg, Silesia, and Saxony, for disputes of poor organizations arising from the public assistance of needy persons, in the first instances the district committees are competent. These contests are decided in the administrative procedure for disputed matters. (See § 39 of the competency law of August 1, 1883.)]

§ 37.

Disputes concerning the public assistance of needy persons between different poor organizations, when the contesting parties belong to one and the same federal state are decided in the way provided for in state legislation. If the contesting poor organizations belong to different federal states, the provisions which follow in §§ 38–51 of this law apply.

[Remark 1 to § 37: For every state of the German Empire competent officials are provided to decide in disputes between poor organizations, in regard to the public assistance of needy persons, in the administrative procedure for disputed matters. This mode of procedure is used only in the case of disputes between poor organizations in the sense of the law concerning residence entitling to assistance. This mode of procedure applies only to contests concerning the public assistance of needy persons, *i. e.*, only to contests based upon provisions of the public poor laws, but not to contests subject to decision under the code of civil procedure.

Remark 2: Under "public assistance of a needy person" is also included the granting of preliminary assistance.

Remark 3: The competence of these officials extend especially to:

(*a*) Suits based upon § 28 of the law concerning residence entitling to assistance.

(*b*) Suits concerning the granting of preliminary assistance against local and state poor organizations which seek to escape from this obligation.

(*c*) Suits for repayment of costs which a poor organization has paid by mistake.

(*d*) Suits for the reception of a needy person whom a poor organization has by mistake, and without having the obligation, taken charge of.

(*e*) Suits against the expelling poor organization of the place of service for payment of costs and acceptance of the person on the ground of § 29.

(*f*) Suits based upon any claims made by one poor organization against another on the ground of a provision of the public poor right in accordance with the imperial law of June 6, 1870, and the law issued to put the same into operation.

Remark 4: When a poor organization is commanded by the authority to which it is subordinate to perform its obligation to grant assistance to a needy person, complaint is not to be made through the administrative procedure for disputed matters, but through the instance-channels provided by law.

Remark 5: Complaints of poor persons against decisions of local poor organizations concerning the mode and measure of assistance to be granted to them must be made as follows in Prussia:

(*a*) If a town of more than 10,000 inhabitants belongs to the poor organization, the final decision is to be given by the district committee.

(*b*) Otherwise the final decision is to be given by the county committee (Kreisausschuss). (See § 41 of the competency law of August 1, 1883.)

Complaints of poor persons against decisions of state poor organizations concerning the mode and measure of assistance are subject to the final decision of the district committee (Bezirksausschuss) so far as the state poor organization consists of only one county (Kreis). (See § 41 of the competency law.)

Remark 6: Complaints of local poor organizations against decisions of state poor organizations as to whether or not, in what measure, and in what manner aid is to be granted (§ 36 of the law of March 8, 1871) are subject to the final decision of the provincial council. (See § 42 of the competency law of August 1, 1883.)]

DECISION.

§ 38.

If a poor organization rejects a claim made against it for payment of costs or acceptance of a needy person, so, upon complaint of that poor organization which has been compelled to grant preliminary assistance, decision concerning the claim raised is to be given in an administrative way (in Verwaltungswege) by those authorities which are superior to the poor organization against which the claim is made.

Competency, the channel and the mode of procedure, are regulated within each federal state, subject to the provisions of this law, by state legislation.

[Remark 1 to § 38: Against a poor organization rejecting a claim for costs or for acceptance of a needy person there are now two modes of procedure in Prussia, namely:

(*a*) The administrative dispute procedure (Verwalt-ungestreitverfahren) before the competent authorities (the district committee—Bezirksausschuss), to whom the poor organization against which the claim is made is subordinate, on the ground of § 38.

(*b*) The intervention procedure before the county committee as umpires and conciliators on the ground of § 43 of the competency law of August 1, 1883.

Remark 2: The intervention of umpires and conciliators was required in § 60 of the Prussian executive law of March 8, 1871, and such matters were formerly brought before a commission, consisting of the state counselor (Landrath) and two members of the county assembly (Kreistag). § 43 of the competency law has replaced this commission by the county committee (Kreisausschuss).

Remark 3: Disputes in which claims are made by a local poor organization against another Prussian poor organization can, at the request of both contesting parties, be referred to an arbitrator, or upon the application of one party, before proceeding further, an attempt at conciliation may be made. (See further § 60 of the law of March 8, 1871.

Remark 4: In administrative disputes procedure in the so-called county-order provinces (Kreis-ordnungsprovinzer) of Prussia, the district committee is competent in the first instance. The mode of procedure is regulated by the provisions of the state administrative law of July 30, 1883, §§ 61–114, with the limitations fixed in §§ 42–52 of the law relative to residence entitling to assistance.

Remark 5: The administrative dispute procedure is applicable only in cases of dispute based upon provisions of the public poor laws, but not for such disputes as belong, according to the civil code, to the competency of civil courts.

Remark 6: The federal department for home affairs has decided that the binding together of several suits against different poor organizations (cumulative suits) is permissible when, from the uniting of several suits of a poor organization against several poor organizations subordinate to the same general superior authorities, and especially from the treatment in common of all claims, a complication or misinterpretation is not threatened.

Remark 7: The federal department for home affairs has recognized that in proper cases it is permissible, in administrative dispute procedure, to exclude action concerning the liquidation of the object of suit (the costs of assistance rendered) and to subject this point to a separate suit.

Such a separate action is necessitated *lo ipso* when a sued poor organization is condemned to pay costs not only which have already arisen, but also which are to arise in the future. These latter costs must, after they arise, be later on liquidated.

Remark 8: The competency of deciding officials, the sequence of instances, and the procedure are regulated in each state by state laws, subject to the provisions of the law concerning residence entitling to assistance.

These matters are regulated in Prussia:

(*a*) The competency of deciding officials in the first instance (district committee—Bezirksausschuss) by § 39 of the competency law of August 1, 1883.

(*b*) The sequence of instances by § 41 of the law concerning residence entitling to assistance. Appeal against decision of the district committee must be made to the federal department for home affairs in Berlin.

(*c*) The mode of procedure before the district committee by the provisions of the state executive law of July 30, 1883, §§ 102–114; procedure before the federal department for home affairs by the law concerning residence entitling to assistance, §§ 42–52.

Remark 9: Costs of administrative dispute procedure before the district committee. The lawyers' fees of the successful party are to be paid by the unsuccessful party only so far as they are due for verbal transactions before the district committee. For cash outlays for personal appearance at the trial the successful party can not claim more than the legal fees of a lawyer would have amounted to, and only when their personal appearance before the district committee was required. The lawyers' fees are regulated by the provisions made for them in connection with regular courts. In the final judgment the value of the object in dispute is to be fixed. See, further, § 102 of the state executive law of July 30, 1883.

Remark 10: The suit is to be registered before the district committee in writing. In the suit a distinct claim must be made and the sued poor organization, the object of claim, and the facts upon which the same is found, must be clearly designated.]

§ 39.

State authorities competent to render a decision are empowered to make examinations at the place, to summon and examine, under oath, witnesses and experts, and to collect unrestrictedly the necessary proofs.

[Remark 1 to § 39: The power given in § 39 is, in Prussia, with reference to administrative dispute procedure before district committees, still further extended by §§ 76 and 77 of the state executive law of July 30, 1883. These paragraphs read:

"§ 76. The court is empowered—in suitable cases before the hearing of the case—to make investigations at the place (an Ort und Stelle), to summon and examine under oath witnesses and experts, and unrestrictedly to collect such proof as the court may deem necessary.

"§ 77. The court can obtain proof through one of its members or, when necessary, through some other official selected for the purpose. It can decree that evidence shall be taken at the oral proceedings. Such proceedings for gathering proof are to be carried on with the assistance of a sworn official or a responsible recorder; the parties must be summoned to be present."

Remark 2: In the administrative dispute procedure the statement of the means of proof (Angabe von Beweis-Mitteln) in the suit is not indispensible.

Remark 3: In regard to the obligation to appear as witness or expert, as well as in regard to the penalties to be imposed in case of disobedience, in administrative dispute processes before the district committee, the provisions of the civil process law apply, with the limitation that in cases of disobedience the money fine can not exceed 150 marks. (See further § 78 of the state executive law of July 30, 1883.)

Remark 4: The deciding authorities are not bound to the proof presented by the parties; they can, moreover, accept any testimony which appears to them suitable, and especially they can support their decision by facts otherwise made known to the court.

§ 40.

Judgment is given by written decision in which the grounds are stated; so far as, thereby, an obligation to receive a needy person (§ 31) is established for the poor organization against which the claim is made this must be distinctly stated in the judgment.

[Remark 1 to § 40: In Prussia, for the judgment of the district committee the state law provisions of §§ 79–81 of the state executive law of July 30, 1883, decide—

"§ 79. The court must decide according to its free opinion arrived at through the entire transactions and testimony. In case one party does not appear or does not make its declaration the facts presented by the opposite party can be accepted as sufficient. Decisions must be confined to the parties summoned to the process and to the claims therein made.

"§ 80. The judgment can be given without previous oral procedure when both parties have distinctly agreed thereto.

"§ 81. Judgment is usually given in open court. A copy of the judgment giving the grounds is to be given to both parties and, so far as a special commissioner was appointed to look after the public interests, a copy must also be given to him at the same time. The mere delivery of the copies suffices, when the judgment was not given in public sitting (open court)."

Remark 2: The cross-questioning (Beweisinterlokute) of an ordinary German civil process is not permissible in administrative dispute processes.

Remark 3: An administrative dispute process is stamp-free in Prussia. The unsuccessful party is responsible for the costs and cash expenditures of the process, as well as for the necessary cash expenditures of the successful party. The costs and cash expenditures of the successful party it must itself bear, so far as they have arisen through its own fault. See, further, §§ 103 and 104 of the state executive law of July 30, 1883, and also remark 9 to § 38.

Remark 4: To the cash expenses which are to be allowed to the successful party belong also costs incurred in ascertaining the responsible organization and in securing the registry guaranteeing the claim in accordance with § 34.

Remark 5: The judgment is binding only for the contesting poor organizations; from the same other poor organizatians not participating in the process can not lose their rights.]

§ 41.

So far as the organization or the local frontiers of individual poor organizations is the subject of dispute, final judgment shall be given by the highest instance established by state law. Against its decision appeal can be made only to the federal department for home affairs.

[Remark 1 to § 41: Appeal against decision of the first instance must be made to the federal department for home affairs in Berlin and notice must be given within 14 days, subject to the loss of legal recourse to the officials of first instance.

Remark 2: Subject for judgment in the appeal instance can not be disputes over such questions as relate to the organization or local limitation (abgrenzung) of individual poor organizations. Such disputes are finally settled only by the highest instance established by state law. This decision is indisputable in administrative dispute procedure.

Remark 3: Can judgment concerning the point of costs be contested by appeal alone or only in connection with the principal matter? According to Prussian law (§ 105 of the state executive law of July 30, 1883) in administrative dispute processes before district committees, which are now also empowered to decide in disputes between poor organizations, appeal can be made or revision sought only in connection with decision of the principal matter. This general regulation issued for processes before district committees, which can not repeal the special imperial law provision of § 41, finds still less application to procedure in disputes between poor organizations, owing to the provision made in § 157 of the state executive law that through this latter law the provisions of the law of June 6, 1870, concerning residence entitling to assistance, are not disturbed. According to § 41 of the latter law it must be regarded as undoubedtly permissible to appeal against parts of a judgment and therefore against only that part of the judgment relative to the costs.

Remark 4: Against decisions of district committees fixing the costs in disputes between poor organizations, complaints must, however, be made to the superior administrative court, as only final judgments, not decisions of the court of first instance, are subject to appeal according to § 41.

The procedure in fixing costs is, in Prussia, according to §108 of the state executive law of July 30, 1883, as follows: The costs and cash expenses of the process are fixed for every instance by the court before which the case has been heard. The expenses of the successful party, which are to be liquidated by the unsuccessful party, shall be fixed for all instances by that court before which the case in the first instance was heard. Against the decision of the district committee fixing this, appeal must be made within two weeks to the superior administrative court.

FEDERAL OFFICE FOR HOME AFFAIRS.

§ 42.

The federal office for home affairs is a fixed and collegial body of officials which has its seat in Berlin.

It consists of a president and at least four members. The president, as well as the other members, are appointed for life by the federal præsidium upon the nomination of the federal council. The president, as well as also at least one-half of the members, must possess the qualifications for high judicial office in the states to which they belong.

§ 43.

Relative to the legal condition of the members of the federal office the provisions of §§ 23–26 of the law in regard to the creation of a supreme court for commercial matters of June 12, 1869, shall, until special federal legislative provisions have been issued, find application, with the modification that—

(1) The plenum of the federal office takes the place of the plenum of the superior commercial court, and that in the case of § 25 the business of the state's attorney

and of the examining judge is performed in each case by a member of the royal Prussian supreme court of judicature at Berlin, appointed by the federal chancellor.

(2) Relative to the amount of pensions, those regulations apply which are in force in that federal state from whose service the member of the federal office is called.

§ 44.

In order that a decision of the federal office shall be valid, the presence of at least three members, one of whom at least shall have the judicial qualification prescribed in § 42, is necessary.

The number of members uniting in a decisive judgment must always be uneven. If an even number of members are present at the settlement of a matter, that member who was last appointed, and in case of more than one having been appointed simultaneously, the younger shall have only an advisory vote.

§ 45.

The order of business in the federal office shall be fixed by regulations prepared by the federal office itself and approved by the federal council. In the business regulations the powers of the president are to be specially fixed.

§ 46.

Written notice of appeal to the federal office must be given within 14 days, calculated from the time when the contested decision was made, to those officials against whose decision the appeal is directed.

The statement of complaints, as well as the justification of the appeal, can either be presented simultaneously with the registry of the latter or can be handed in to the same officials within four weeks from this termine. Of all documents, as well as of any enclosures therewith, duplicates are to be supplied.

[Remark 1 to § 46: For the calculation of the 14-day appeal period and of the 4-week justification period, according to § 52 of the state executive law of July 30, 1883, the civil process laws are decisive. (See in regard to the civil process laws, §§ 198-204 of the German civil code.)

Remark 2: The period for appeal can not be extended.

Remark 3: The appeal period begins with the day on which the contested decision is actually delivered, not from the day upon which notice thereof is given.

Remark 4: For the maintainance and use of the legal right is necessary only the giving of notice of appeal without the justification. The legal right of appeal is also not lost when such statement and justification are not made within the 4-week period prescribed in par. 2 of § 46.

Remark 5: Notice of appeal must be given to the officials against whose decision the same is made. Therefore, the period of appeal is not made use of by the giving of direct notice to the federal office for home affairs.

Remark 6: The appeal period is made use of only when notice of appeal is made to an official person or body actively authorized for the hearing of the process.]

§ 47.

The duplicates received are to be answered in writing by the competent officials of the other party, within four weeks subsequent to their delivery, by counter declarations prepared in duplicate.

[Remark to § 47: For the calculation of these four weeks the civil process laws are, likewise, decisive. See remark 1 to § 46.]

§ 48.

After the expiration of this period the officials referred to shall refer all these transactions and the documents referring thereto to the federal office.

§ 49.

If the federal office, before delivering its decision, considers a further explanation of facts and legal conditions necessary, the same must be obtained through the medium of the competent state authorities.

[Remark 1 to § 49: Decisions of first instance, even before they have obtained legal force, are at once enforcible, except as is otherwise provided in § 57.

Remark 2: The application for execution is to be addressed to the officials competent to decide in first instance. To these officials it is left to require the enforcement of judgment by the state officials whose sphere of competence embraces these poor organizations.]

§ 50.

The decision of the federal office, for which there is no fee, is given in open court after the parties have been summoned and heard.

The decision will be given in writing, together with the grounds upon which it is based, to the parties through the medium of those officials (§ 46) against whose decision the appeal was made.

§ 51.

Against the decision of the federal office there is no appeal.

§ 52.

Until further regulation by federal authorities, of the competence of the federal office for home affairs, it may be decided by the legislation of a federal state that the provisions of §§ 38–51, 56, par. 2 of this law, shall go into force for disputes between poor organizations of the states in question.

EXECUTION OF JUDGMENT.

§ 53.

In cases of dispute concerning the public assistance of needy persons regulated by this law, the decision of the first instance, except as otherwise specified in § 57, can be at once enforced.

Furthermore, execution takes place: (*a*) Upon the ground and in the limits of an agreement made by the poor organization (§ 55) upon which claim has been made; (*b*) upon the ground of final judgment.

The enforcement of execution rests with the authorities competent to decide in first instance, and is to be carried out by the same with use of the usual documents.

§ 54.

If the already-executed decision of the first instance provided by state law is revoked by final decisions of higher state instances or in accordance with §§ 38–51 of this law, the authorities competent to render decision in first instance must issue the necessary orders to that poor organization which caused the execution of judgment, in order that such execution and its consequences may be reversed.

§ 55.

It is left to the poor organization which is under obligation for preliminary assistance (§ 28) or for acceptance of a needy person (§ 31) to permanently or temporarily retard the putting into force of the right of expulsion (§ 5 of the law of November 1, 1867, concerning the right of migration) by mutual agreement concerning the continuance of the person or family who are to be expelled in their previous place

of sojourn upon the payment of a fixed amount for their assistance by the other poor organization.

The authorities of first instance (§§ 38–40) are under obligation, upon the request of one or the other of the interested parties, to do their utmost to effect such an agreement.

If the agreement is made in writing in the form of a contract the administrative execution goes into effect upon the ground thereof. (§ 53.)

[Remark to § 55: The authorities of first instance are those judicial authorities which are superior to the poor organization under obligation to render preliminary assistance or to receive a needy person. § 55 takes it for granted that a decision which is capable of being enforced has already been given in a dispute between poor organizations based upon the necessity of rendering assistance.]

§ 56.

When expulsion would convey with it danger to the life or health of the person expelled, or his dependents, or when the cause of unfitness for employment or work on the part of the person to be expelled has arisen from wounds or disease incurred in the federal-war services or through deeds of personal self-sacrifice, or, finally, when expulsion from the place of sojourn would be connected with considerable hardships or disadvantages for the person to be expelled, even when an agreement can not be reached in regard to the continuance of the person's or family's sojourn at the place where they have hitherto resided, orders may be issued by the authorities of first instance, competent to decide, to the local poor organization of the place of sojourn fixing the amount of assistance to be paid by the responsible poor organization.

Against this order, which, when the suppositions cease to exist under which it was issued, can be withdrawn at any time, appeal can be made within 14 days after it has been served on both parties. The appeal is to be made, when the contesting poor organizations belong to one and the same federal states, to the next higher instance provided by state law. So far as the contesting parties belong to different federal states appeal must be made to the federal office for home affairs. The decision thus obtained is final.

The same is the case when the application of the obligated poor organization for the issuance of such an order is rejected.

[Remark 1 to § 56: For the issuance of the order mentioned in § 56 concerning the permitting the person subject to expulsion to remain in the place of his sojourn, not the legal first-instance authorities superior to the poor organization under obligation, but those superior to the local poor organization of the person's sojourn are competent.

Remark 2: Upon the ground of § 6 of the right of migration law of November 1, 1867, actual expulsion can not take place before either the community on which the the claim is made has declared its readiness to accept the person, or at least a decision capable of being temporarily enforced has been given in regard to the maintenance of the person. So soon as such a declaration of willingness is made, or a decision which can be temporarily enforced is given, the proper authorities of the place of sojourn become competent. The application of § 56, therefore, does not require that the execution instance (executionsinstanz) shall have already taken steps against the obligated poor organization, or that the obligation to accept the person shall have been fixed by a decison or an agreement made in accordance with § 55, par. 3.

Remark 3: The right of action based upon the order permitting the person to remain is then in force when the poor organization of the place of sojourn declares to the poor organization under obligation to receive the person that it actually intends to expel the person.

Remark 4: The right of action based upon the order referred to extends to the interested poor organizations, not to the person to be expelled.]

§ 57.

So long as the proceedings in regard to the attempt to bring about an agreement in accordance with § 55 or in regard to the issuance of the order described in § 56 are pending the decision of the first instance can not be enforced. (§ 53.)

[Remark to § 57: If the "execution instance," upon the ground of the in the meanwhile enforceable decision, has already taken steps, then the authorities competent to decide in first instance of that poor organization which caused the enforcement of the execution shall issue the necessary order to revoke such execution.]

§ 58.

If the expulsion is to be accomplished through transportation, the cost of such transportation falls upon the poor organization responsible therefor, as a part of the costs of assistance to be allowed.

If dispute arrises as to the necessity of transportation or the manner of carrying it out, the final decision is made by the authorities of the poor organization district of the place of sojourn (§ 38, par. 2), who are competent in first instance in the main question at issue.

§ 59.

If a poor organization, according to the certificate of its superior authorities, is wholly or partially unable to pay the costs finally imposed upon it, the federal state to which it belongs must directly or indirectly assume the responsibility.

[Remark to § 59: For Prussia it is decided in the executive law of March 8, 1871, that in such a case the costs of the process are not taken into account, and for the payment of the expenses and fees the state poor organization must provide.]

PUBLIC ASSISTANCE OF NEEDY FOREIGNERS.

§ 60.

Foreigners must preliminarily be assisted by that local poor organization in whose district they are when the need of aid begins.

To payment of costs or to reception of the needy foreigner is that federal state obligated to which the local poor organization rendering preliminary assistance belongs, with the modification that the right is left to every federal state by legislation to transfer this obligation to the poor organizations.

[Remark 1 to § 60: Foreigners in the sense of the law are subjects of those countries in which the law in regard to residence entitling to assistance has not been introduced. (Bavaria and Alsace-Lorraine.)

Remark 2: Prussia has transferred to the poor organizations, through § 64 of the executive law of March 8, 1871, the obligation to pay costs and receive into their charge needy foreigners. If a foreigner, before he has acquired a residence in Germany entitling him to assistance, the state poor organization is under obligation to pay the costs and to take charge of the person.

Remark 3: § 64 of the executive law reads: "Every foreigner is, so long as he is allowed to stay in Germany, to be treated in the same manner as a German would be in regard to (*a*) the sort and measure of public assistance to be granted to him in case of his being in need, (*b*) the acquirement and loss of residence entitling to assistance."

RELATION OF POOR ORGANIZATIONS TO ONE ANOTHER.

§ 61.

By the provisions of this law rights and obligations are founded only between organizations obligated by the provisions of this law to grant public assistance (local poor organizations, state poor organizations, and federal states).

TO OTHER OBLIGATED PARTIES.

Therefore obligations to assist needy persons based upon other titles (family and service relations, contracts, etc.) are not reached by the provisions of this law. Every poor organization which, according to the provisions of this law, has assisted a needy person is entitled to demand recompense for those services to the granting of which a third party is obligated by titles other than those established by this law, from such obligated person, in the same measure and under the same conditions as the person assisted possesses the right of claim to such services.

The excuse can not here be made that the assisting poor organization is entitled to demand the recompense from another poor organization.

[Remark 1 to § 62: The poor organization, under obligation to grant public assistance, must assume the care of a needy person, with regress against parties obligated under other titles (family and service relations, contracts, etc.).

Remark 2: The obligation of the poor organizations to assist needy persons is disturbed neither by the law in regard to the insurance of workmen against sickness of June 15, 1883, nor by the accident insurance law of July 6, 1884. So far as upon the ground of such obligation assistance is granted in cases in which, in accordance with those laws, the person assisted has the right to claim indemnities, the latter to the extent of the assistance rendered are transferred to the poor organization granting the assistance. (See § 57, Remarks 1 and 2 of the sickness insurance law and § 8 of the accident insurance law.)

Here it should be remarked that the amounts granted on the strength of these laws, as well as acts of assistance for which a recompense is given, are not to be regarded as public assistance. (See § 77 of the sickness insurance law of June 16, 1883.)]

TO THE AUTHORITIES.

§ 63.

Executive and police authorities are under obligation, upon demand, within their jurisdiction, to assist poor organizations in ascertaining the home, family, and sojourn conditions of a needy persons.

§ 64.

The beginning of the results based in §§ 10 and 22 upon the expiration of a fixed period can not be avoided by agreement or renouncement of interested officials or persons.

[Remark to §64: The law applying to disputes between poor organizations upon the basis of the imperial law of June 6, 1870, can not be altered by agreement or by one-sided declarations. Therefore, so-called home certificates (Heimathsscheine or Heimathsreverse), which were formerly customary, are now entirely useless and without binding force.]

THE POINT OF TIME AT WHICH THE LAW GOES INTO FORCE.

§ 65.

This law goes into force on July 1, 1871. After this day the provisions in force up to that time concerning matters regulated by the present law shall continue in force only so far as the fixing of the place of residence entitling to assistance for the time prior to July 1, 1871, is concerned.

TRANSITION PROVISIONS.

Hereby the following special provisions are to be observed:

(1) Those North Germans who, on June 30, 1871, possess a home right within the federal territory have, in consequence thereof, on July 1, 1871, residence entitling to assistance in those poor organizations to which their places of residence belong.

(2) Those North Germans who, on June 30, 1871, possess residence entitling them to assistance within the federal territory possess the same on July 1, 1871, with the consequences and modifications of this law, irrespective of whether or not the preliminaries of acquisition were other than those prescribed by this law.

(3) Where and in so far as heretofore a home right or residence entitling to assistance could not be secured by mere sojourn and lost by mere absence, the two years' period prescribed by this law for the acquisition or loss of residence entitling to assistance begins with July 1, 1871.

(4) Where formerly, for the acquisition or loss of residence entitling to assistance, the same period or a period longer than that prescribed by this law was fixed, in calculating the latter, allowance shall be made for the time which has expired prior to July 1, 1871.

(5) Where formerly, for the acquisition or loss of the residence entitling to assistance, a shorter period was fixed than the one prescribed by this law, so far as the shorter period shall have expired prior to July 1, 1871, it shall be regarded as completed even when the decision thereupon is given after July 1, 1871. If the shorter period shall not have expired before July 1, 1871, in order to secure the benefits provided for in this law the period therein prescribed must be completed, but allowance will be made for the time which has expired prior to July 1, 1871.

(6) The mode of procedure prescribed by this law for deciding disputes concerning the public assistance of needy persons comes into use, in accordance with the provision of § 37, in those disputes of poor organizations (poor communes, poor districts, home districts) which are entered for decision subsequent to June 30, 1871.

[Remark to § 65: Beyond fixing the time at which the law went into force (July 1, 1871) § 65 contains only transitory provisions.]

Witness our exalted hand and federal seal. Given at Babelsberg Castle, June 6, 1870.

[L. S.] WILLIAM COUNT V. BISMARCK-SCHÖNHAUSEN.

II.

LAW OF MARCH 8, 1871, IN REGARD TO THE ENFORCEMENT OF THE FEDERAL LAW CONCERNING RESIDENCE ENTITLING TO ASSISTANCE.

EXTENT OF THE ASSISTANCE OBLIGATION.

§ 1.

To every needy German (§ 69) must be granted by the poor organization responsible for his assistance shelter, the indispensable necessaries of life, requisite nursing in case of sickness, and suitable burial in event of death. The assistance can, in proper cases, so long as the same is claimed, be granted by placing the person in a poorhouse or hospital and by assigning to him, within or without such house, labor suited to the strength of the needy person.

Poor organizations are not under obligation to pay fees for spiritual services rendered to persons needing aid.

[Remark to § 1: Under "needy Germans" is to be understood anyone to whom the applicability of the imperial law of June 6, 1870, extends.

Remark 2: In §1 the sort and measure of public assistance to be granted in case of necessity are fixed. See further § 1 of the imperial law of June 6, 1870. There must be granted: (*a*) shelter; (*b*) indispensable necessities of life; (*c*) requisite nursing in case of sickness; (*d*) suitable burial in event of death.

Under obligation to grant such assistance is the preliminarily obligated as well as the definitely obligated poor organization. See further § 28 of the imperial law of June 6, 1870.

Remark 3 (Shelter): In the same way as the actual supplying of a place of abode is to be regarded the granting of a sum of money to pay a needy person's rent in order

to protect him against ejection and to secure to him, as a shelter, his former home. Payment of arrears of rent not made for such purpose can not be regarded as an act of aid to the poor in the sense of the law.

Remark 4 (Indispensable necessities of life): Hereto belongs, among other things, the supplying of articles of clothing (clothing, shoes, etc.), upon the discharge of a needy person from a hospital, when such clothing is necessary for the preservation of the health of the discharged person and for his protection against a return of disease.

Remark 5 (Requisite nursing in case of sickness): Hereto belongs, among other things, also the necessary transportation of the sick person to the hospital. The necessary costs thus arising can be allowed.

ORGANS OF PUBLIC AID OF NEEDY PERSONS.

(*a*) *Local poor organizations—Communities.*

§ 2.

Every community (Gemeinde) forms a local poor organization for itself so far as it does not already belong to a poor organization comprising several communities or estates (compound poor organization) or can not, in accordance with the following provisions, be annexed to such an organization. The management of the public charities shall, in all communal districts, be under the control, for communal affairs, of the communal officials designated for the purpose by communal constitutional law. The provisions of communal constitutional law concerning the management of communal affairs, especially the provisions concerning the competency of the communal executive and the town council, have general application; also for the management of public charities. The competence granted in this law to the communal council shall, where there is no such elected communal council, be attached to the communal assembly.

[Remark 1 to 2: The organs for the public aid of needy persons are:

(1) Local poor organizations, namely: (*a*) Communal poor organizations, (*b*) estate poor organizations, (*c*) compound poor organizations.

(2) State poor organizations.

Remark 2: Compound poor organizations—*i. e.*, all communes and estates united in one poor organization—are regarded as units in accordance with the provisions of the imperial law of June 6, 1870 (see § 3 of the cited law).]

§ 3.

Upon the ground of communal legislation in all communities, special deputations for the management of public poor affairs, subordinate to the communal executive, can be formed from members of the communal executive body and of the communal assembly, in suitable cases other inhabitants of the place being admitted to membership. The presiding officer in such deputations shall be, so far as other provision in regard to the presidency of deputations in communal constitutional law, the mayor—in the country communes of the province of Westphalia the warden (Amtmann)—or a member of the communal executive, deputized for the purpose by him. Where there is no mayor (warden) at the head of the communal government the communal president takes his place.

Provisions of communal constitutional law differing herefrom in regard to the composition and business methods of special executive deputations have no force; the election of members of the communal assembly and other local residents as members of the poor deputation continues, however, everywhere, so far as this law is concerned, a prerogative of the communal assembly.

Local pastors or their proxies, whose parishes extend beyond the limits of the political township (Gemeinde) of their place of residence; are—in connection with that part of the parish lying in the foreign township—to be regarded as local residents.

§ 4.

Every member of the community who has the right to participate in the communal elections is under obligation to accept, without pay, a position in the communal poor organization and to serve three years or any longer period of time prescribed by the communal constitutional laws.

From this obligation exemptions are made only for the following causes: (1) Continued sickness; (2) employment which necessitates frequent and long-continued absence; (3) age of 60 years or more; (4) the administration of another public office; (5) other special conditions warranting exemption, the sufficiency of which, so far as is not otherwise provided in the communal constitutional laws, is to be decided upon by the communal assembly.

Whoever has filled an unpaid position for the time prescribed by law is for the next following equally long period exempt from the obligation to serve.

§ 5.

Whoever without legal ground refuses to enter or to continue in an unpaid position in the communal poor organization, or who avoids doing so, can be declared to have lost for a period of from three to six years the right to participate in communal elections and to occupy unpaid positions and his direct communal taxes can be raised from one-eighth to one-fourth above their regular amount. The decision on this point shall be, so far as it is not otherwise provided in the communal constitutional laws, left to the communal assembly. The decision requires the approval of the supervising officials.

§ 6.

The presidents of corporations and other juristical persons are under obligation to give to communal officers, upon their demand, information concerning the amount of assistance granted to a needy person of the communal district from funds under their control which are set apart for charitable purposes. Presidents who neglect to give this information within 14 days subsequent to the receipt of the communal authorities' demand will be punished by money fine not exceeding ten thalers (30 marks).

§ § 7 and 8 relate to estates lying outside of the compound organization, the management thereof, public aid for the poor, and the obligation to bear costs.

§ § 9 to 15 relate to the creation and dissolution of compound poor organizations.

§ § 16 to 18 contain provisions concerning the alteration and frontier limitation of poor organizations not in agreement with the provisions of imperial law of June 6, 1870.

§ § 19 to 24 contain provisions concerning the abolition of those special officials who, in some parts of the land, before the enactment of the imperial law of June 6, 1870, jointly with the communal authorities, controlled the local management of the poor.

THE STATE GOVERNMENT'S RIGHT OF SUPERVISION.

§ 25.

To the degree fixed by communal constitutional law the state government has the right to supervise the management of the local poor organizations. It has especially to see that in the cases covered by §§ 19, etc., the poor funds are not estranged from the purpose for which they were intended.

[Remark to § 25: This provision is annulled or modified by §§ 7 and 24 of the competency law of August 1, 1883.

According to § 7, the supervision of the management of municipal communal matters in the first instance is a prerogative of the governmental president in the higher and last instance of the over-president.

According to § 24 the supervision of the affairs of land (country) communes, of the counties (Aemter) of the province of Westphalia and of the mayoralties of the Rhine province is a prerogative, in the first instance, of the sheriff (Landrath) as president of the county committee (Kreisausschuss), in the higher and last instance of the governmental president.]

(*b*) *State poor organizations.*

§ 26.

The existing state poor organizations shall be maintained in their present limits until further notice, but the district (Kreis) of Meisenheim is annexed to the state poor organization of the governmental district of Coblenz, and the county (Enklave) of Kaulsdorf to the state poor organization of the former Saxon townships (Kreise) of the governmental districts of Merseburg and Erfurt and of the township (Kreis) of Erfurt. Separate state poor organizations are composed by: (1) The province of Schleswig-Holstein; (2) the province of Hanover; (3) the communal union of the governmental district of Cassel; (4) the communal union of the governmental district of Wiesbaden, not including the city of Frankfort-on-Main; (5) the city of Frankfort-on-Main; (6) the governmental district of Sigmaringen.

For the Iade district for the present the Government assumes the functions of a state poor organization.

[Remark to § 26: See remark 3 to § 5 of the Imperial law of June 6, 1870, concerning the frontier limitation of state poor organizations, and the seat and jurisdiction of the authorities of such organizations.]

§ 27.

The management of the affairs of those state poor organizations consisting of only one commune (Gemeinde) shall be managed in accordance with the regulations in force relative to the administration of the affairs of the communes (der Gemeinden).

In all other cases the administration of the affairs of state poor organizations shall be regulated by royal proclamation. So far such proclamations have not already been issued, addressed to the respective county (Kreis) or provincial and communal organizations and their organs in accordance with the constitutional laws applicable to these organizations and their organs. Prior to the issuance of the royal proclamations referred to the administrative regulations in force at the time apply everywhere, subject to the provisions of § 71.

§ 29.

The costs incurred in fulfilling the obligations of the state poor organizations shall be divided among the counties (Kreise) interested in proportion to the amount of direct state taxes collected therein (§ 70), in so far as the officials of the poor organization do not with the approval of the minister of finance, decide upon another mode of raising the amount, it is left to the counties (Kreise) to decide in what manner they will raise their respective allotted shares of the expense. In the province of Hanover the before-mentioned costs shall be divided among the official organizations or towns not belonging to official organizations.

In the governmental district of Sigmaringen the division shall be made among the superior districts (Oberamtsbezirke). The manner of collecting the money shall, until county and provincial officials are appointed, be decided upon by an assembly of chief magistrates (mayors, bailiffs, wardens) of places in the superior districts, under the presidency of the high sheriff (Oberamtsmann).

[Remark to § 39: Under § 14, sub. 2, of the competency law of August 1, 1883, complaints and claims based upon participation in the burdens of the state poor organization shall be decided by the presiding officers of the latter.

Against the decision appeal can be made within two weeks through administrative contest procedure (Verwaltungssbridverfahren). The district committee is competent. Against the decision of the district committee in all cases only the legal remedy (Rechtsmittel) of revision is admissible.

Claims against additions to the direct state taxes, directed against the principal rating of the latter, are admissible.

Complaints and claims, as well as appeals, have no delaying effects. The same can be made only by the individual organizations, counties, and townships which are directly called upon to raise the amount needed to cover the costs incurred in caring for the poor.]

§ 30.

The provisions of § 29 do not go into force in the provinces of Prussia, Brandenburg, Pomerania, Silesia, Saxony, and Westphalia, and in the Rhine province, until January 1, 1873. On the same day, in the province of Silesia, the legal provisions there at the time in force relative to the collection of taxes for state poor and reform purposes in connection with inheritances and changes of ownership, shall go out of force.

OBLIGATIONS AND RIGHTS OF STATE POOR ORGANIZATIONS.

§ 31.

The state poor organizations are empowered to directly assume costs incurred in publicly caring for the insane, idiots, and deaf mutes, the diseased, and the blind. Counties, or poor organizations, which have heretofore satisfactorily provided for one of the branches of provision for the poor which are to be directly assumed by the state poor organization, can not against their will be compelled to participate in the work of the state poor organization or to contribute to its costs. The obligations of individual state poor organizations, based upon special legal provisions or titles, as well as the obligation of local poor organizations to render preliminary aid to needy persons in their districts (§ 28 of the federal law) are not hereby affected.

The foregoing provision applies in like manner to communal organizations composed of several communities or estate districts (mayoralties, bailiwicks, compound communes), as well as to jurisdictions (Amtsbezirke) and counties (Kreise). These organizations can, moreover, assume directly the care of the sick.

§§ 32 and 33.

(The provisions made in these sections are of interest only for those provinces in which the provincial order of June 29, 1875, is not yet enforced.)

§ 34.

The state poor organizations are empowered to refer, subject to payment therefor, persons for whose care they are legally responsible to that local poor organization, which, according to § 28 of the federal law of June 6, 1870, is responsible for the preliminary assistance of the same.

The state poor organizations are under obligation to receive into their poorhouses, so far as space permits, subject to payment therefor, persons for whose care local poor organizations are responsible, at the request of these organizations.

§ 35.

The tariffs fixing the amounts which poor organizations can claim as recompense shall be issued by the minister of the interior after hearing the provincial authorities or the communal legislatures. The tariffs at present existing shall remain in force until changed in the before-mentioned manner.

[Remark to § 35: The tariff for use in Prussia was made public by ministerial rescript of July 2, 1876.]

§ 36.

State poor organizations are under obligation to grant aid to local poor organizations belonging to their districts which are unable to meet the obligations resting upon them. If and what aid is to be granted, is, after a hearing before the county legislature, to be finally decided by the deputation for home affairs (§ 40) to whose district (Sprengel) the local poor organization in question belongs. The aid can be granted in money, or in supplying institutions where needy persons can be cared for, or in any other suitable way.

The organizations already existing in some parts of the governmental district of Cassel, for the assistance of such communes as alone are unable to bear the burden of publicly caring for the poor, are dissolved in so far as these organizations have not at the same time other purposes, or in so far as at the same time § 32 does not apply to them. To the funds of these organizations, so far as the same was intended solely for the aid of the before-mentioned communes, the provisions of §§ 17 and 18 apply.

[Remark to § 36: Instead of the deputation for home affairs the provincial council now gives the final decision. § 42 of the competency law of August 1, 1883, provides: "Complaints of local poor organizations against decisions of state poor organizations, relative to, to what extent, and in what manner, assistance is to be granted (§ 36 of the law of March 8, 1871), are subject to the final decision of the provincial council." Therefore verdict procedure (Beschlussverfahren) and not administrative contest procedure is to be followed in these cases of complaint.]

§ 37.

If a German who has no place of residence which entitles him to assistance, upon the demand of foreign state officials (§ 33 of the federal law), must be accepted from a foreign country, and if the need of assistance exists at the time of such acceptance, or begins within 7 days subsequent to such acceptance, the obligation to pay the costs of assistance or to receive the needy person falls to that state poor organization within which the needy person had the last place of residence, which entitled him to assistance. If this place of residence entitling him to assistance can not be ascertained, that poor organization is under obligation to bear the costs in whose district the need of assistance appeared.

§ 38.

State poor organizations are under obligation to care for in a workhouse persons arrested in their districts, who are, upon the ground of the provisions of § 361, Nos. 3 to 8 of the penal code for the North German Confederation of May 31, 1870, condemned, and after paying their penalties, handed over to the state police authorities, if this service is required of the state poor organizations by the state police authorities. The costs of transportation of the before-mentioned persons from the court jail to the workhouse, as well as the clothing indispensable for this transportation, must be borne by the state; but on the other hand, the state poor organization is responsible for the costs incurred in caring for the person in the institution, in giving clothing when it is necessary to the person upon his dismissal, and, when the case arises, in giving such persons burial, in so far as these costs are not covered by the earnings arising from the labor of the persons.

[Remark to § 38: Instead of "Penal code for the North German Confederation of May 31, 1870," read now, "Penal code for the German Empire of May 15, 1871."]

§ 39.

State poor organizations, so far as this was the case heretofore, are no longer under obligation to bear the costs of carrying into effect judicially imposed imprisonments of the persons referred to in § 38.

PROCEDURE IN CONTESTS.

§§ 40 to 48.

(These sections were put out of force both by § 89 of the administrative court law of July 3, 1875, and by § 158 of the state administrative law of July 30, 1883.)

[Remark: The procedure in contests relative to public support, for which, in the so-called county-order provinces, the district committee (Bezirks-ausschuss) is competent in first instance, is regulated by §§ 61–114 of the state administrative law of July 30, 1883, with exception of those which conflict with §§ 42–52 of the law of June 6, 1870, relative to the place of residence which entitles a person to assistance.]

The deputation for home affairs (Heimathswesen) is empowered to cause investigations to be made on the spot, to summon witnesses and experts, and to administer oaths; in general, to take evidence without restriction.

In regard to the obligation to appear as witness or expert, the corresponding provisions of the civil process laws apply. The deputation, in cases of disobedience, can impose penalties, subject to appeal made to the federal department for home affairs within fourteen days after delivery of the notice that the fine has been imposed.

[Remark 1 to § 49: Instead of the deputation for home affairs in those Prussian provinces in which the county and provincial order has been put into execution, the district committee (Bezirksausschus) is competent.

Remark 2: On the ground of § 49, also in the so-called county order provinces, appeals against imposed penalties, delivered against witnesses and experts on account of disobedience, must be addressed, not to the superior administrative court (Oberverwaltungsgericht), but to the federal department for home affairs, in Berlin.]

§§ 50 to 56.

(These sections were repealed both by § 89 of the administrative court law of July 3, 1875, and by § 158 of the state administrative law of July 3, 1883.)

[Remark: See remark to §§ 40–48.]

§ 57.

So far as the organization or the local frontier limitation of single poor organization is the object of contest, the final decision is given by the deputation. Otherwise, against its decision, with the exclusion of all other legal remedies, appeal can be taken to the federal department for home affairs.

[Remark to § 57: § 57 is related to § 41 of the imperial law of June 6, 1870, in accordance with which, in disputes relative to the local frontier limitation of single poor organizations, the final decision is given by the highest instance established by state law. As such instance in § 57, the deputation for home affairs is fixed, whose place is now taken by the district committee in the so-called county order provinces (Kreisowmüngsprorinzen).]

§ 58.

In all contests between Prussian poor organizations the defeated party is under obligations to recompense the opposite party for all cash outlays incurred in the appeal, and to pay the fees of an attorney representing such other party in the public session of the federal department (Bundesamt).

§ 59.

Against the decrees mentioned in § 56 of the federal law, appeal to the federal department for home affairs can be made, also in those cases in which there is a contest between two Prussian poor organizations.

If a poor organization is wholly or partially unable (§ 59 of the federal law) to recompense and pay costs and fees finally imposed upon it, the costs of procedure are not to be reckoned, but the poor organization in question is responsible for outlays and fees.

§ 60.

In every county a committee shall be formed, which, in all contests in which claims are made against a local poor organization by another Prussian poor organization, at the request of both contesting parties, shall act as an umpire, and, upon request made by one of the parties before the case has been brought before the deputation, shall attempt to effect a reconciliation.

This committee shall consist of the sheriff (Landrath) or his substitute, as president, and two other members elected by the county legislature from among the residents of the county for a period of three years. For the president and each of the other two members the county legislature shall also elect alternates.

In towns belonging to no county the election shall be made from among the residents of the commune by the communal executive and the communal representatives in common session (in gemeinscheftlicher Sitzüng).

[Remark to § 60: §§ 60–62 are modified by § 43 of the competency law of August 1, 1883, in that upon the ground of the same the county (or municipal) committee, instead of county commissions designated in §§ 60–62 of the executive law (Ausführungsgesitz) of March 8, 1871, shall decide concerning contests between poor organizations in umpire or conciliatory proceedings. The decisions of the county (or municipal) committee (Ausschuss) are final.

Therefore pars. 2 and 3 of § 60 are to be regarded as repealed.]

§ 61.

For the procedure of the commissions §§ 46, 49, 50, 52, and 54 apply in such measure that the penalties designated in § 49 shall be imposed by the commission, appeal to the deputation for home affairs being permissible. All other parts of the procedure the commission regulates in each individual case. Especially can it in every stage of the proceedings seek to effect an agreement (Sühneversüch).

[Remark 1 to § 61: The county (or municipal) committee (Ausschuss) now takes the place of the county commissions. (See further remarks to § 60.)

Remark 2: In the so-called county-order provinces appeal (Rekurs) is to be taken to the district committee (Bezirksausschuss).]

§ 62.

The commission decides finally, with exclusion of any appeal (Berufing). The decision is given without fees and free of revenue stamps; but the defeated party must bear the burden of the cash costs (Anslagen) of procedure and those of the victorious party, but not the fees of a legal representative (Bevollmachtigter).

The cash costs to be paid shall be fixed finally by the commission.

The decisions of the commission, as well as the agreements (Einigüngen) certified to by the same, can be enforced through the executive channel.

[Remark to § 62: The county (or municipal) committee (Ausschuss) now takes the place of the county commissions (Kreiskommissionen). (See further remark to § 60.)]

§ 63.

A claim for assistance can never be made by a pauper against a poor organization through the courts (in Rechtscoege), but only to the administrative officials, whose duty it is to receive no complaints which claim more than is necessary.

Complaints concerning decisions of presiding officers of local poor organizations relative to what measure and in what way assistance shall be granted to poor persons, shall follow the order of instances fixed by existing laws in such manner that instead of the district government (Bezirksregierung) the deputation for home affairs shall give the final decision.

[Remark 1 to § 63: Par. 2 § 63 was repealed by § 41 of the competency law of *August 1,1883*, which provides that complaints of paupers against decisions of local

poor organizations relative to if, in what measure and in what way aid is to be granted, shall be subject (1) to the final decision of the district committee if a town having more than 10,000 inhabitants belongs to the poor organization, (2) otherwise to the final decision of the county committee.

Remark 2: Complaints of paupers against decisions of state poor organizations, relative to the mode and measure of assistance, are subject to the final decision of the district committee so far as the state poor organization consists of only one county. (See further, § 41, par. 2, of the competency law of August 1, 1883.)]

PUBLIC ASSISTANCE OF NEEDY FOREIGNERS.

§ 64.

Every foreigner must be treated in the same manner as a German so long as he is permitted to sojourn in the country (in Inland), in regard to (*a*) the mode and measure of public assistance to be granted to him in case of necessity, (*b*) the acquisition and loss of residence entitling to assistance.

[Remark 1 to § 64: This section is connected with § 60 of the imperial law of June 6, 1870. Prussia has transferred to its poor organizations the there-mentioned obligation to pay the costs or to take charge of needy foreigners.

Remark 2: The circumstance of having obtained permission to sojourn in the country is not a necessary prerequisite to the applicability of § 64. The words "so long as he is permitted to sojourn in the country" mean "so long as he sojourns in the country and no use is made of the right to forbid such sojourn." A foreigner accordingly, by two years' uninterrupted residence, acquires in Prussia residence entitling him to assistance, unless in the meanwhile such sojourn has been forbidden.]

RELATION OF POOR ORGANIZATIONS TO OTHER OBLIGATED PARTIES AND TO OFFICIALS.

§ 65.

Upon demand, the poor organization which must assist a needy person can—through a well-grounded decision of the administrative officials (after hearing the interested parties, the husband, the wife, the legitimate parents, the illegitimate mother, as well as the legitimate children, and the illegitimate children as far as the mother is concerned)—be compelled to grant the necessary continued assistance to the needy person to the extent of their legal obligation.

This decision is to be given by the sheriff (Landrath) of that county, in the governmental district of Sigmaringen by the high sheriff (Oberamtmann) of that district (Oberamtsbezirk), in which the relative of the needy person, against whom the claim is made, resides; or where the township in which the person resides neither in communal nor in police matters is subordinate to the sheriff (Landrath), the decision is to be given by the executive authorities of the township (Gemeindevorstand).

If the relative in question has no residence in this country, instead of the authorities of the place of residence the authorities of the place of sojourn are competent.

[Remark to § 65: § 65 is modified by § 43, sub. 2, of the competency law of August 1, 1883, in accordance with which the county (or municipal) committee (Ausschuss) must decide instead of the sheriff (Landrath) or the municipal authorities of the township, upon the demand of a poor organization, against a relative under obligation to support a needy person.

The decisions of the county (or municipal) committee are, subject to the regular provisions of law, final.]

§ 66.

Against the decision of the executive authorities (§ 65), within 10 days after it has been given, both the relatives on whom the claim was made and the interested poor organization have the right of appeal (Rekurs) to the deputation for home affairs.

which latter, after hearing both parties, shall deliver the final decision. But both parties still have the right to take the matter to the courts.

[Remark to § 66: The first sentence of § 66 was repealed by § 43, sub. 2, of the competency law of August 1, 1883, in accordance with which the decisions of the administrative authorities (the county or municipal committee) are, unless the matter is taken to the ordinary courts, final.]

§ 67.

The decisions of the executive authorities (§§ 65, 66) can be enforced preliminarily, and so long as appeal is not made or a differing judicial decision delivered. In the latter case the poor organization must repay to the relative on whom the claim was made the amount which he has already furnished or the difference between the excessive amount which he has furnished and the amount which he is finally required to furnish; in case of refusal it can be compelled to do this.

If the person claiming such an allowance does not, within six months subsequent to the delivery of the contested decision by the executive authorities, enter suit before the courts, he can demand back only that excessive amount which he has furnished in the time subsequent to the filing of such suit.

§ 68.

The repayment of already expended assistance-costs by a poor organization in all cases, so far as §§ 40, etc., relative to procedure in contests between poor organizations, do not apply, claim only suits at law.

SPECIAL PROVISIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL SECTIONS OF THE COUNTRY AND FINAL PROVISIONS.

§ 69.

Under the terms "a needy German" and "a German poor organization," in the sense of this law, are to be understood such as are covered by the federal law of June 6, 1870, relative to residence which entitles to assistance.

§ 70.

So far as the costs to be raised by individual organizations, counties, and communes, in consequence of this law, are raised upon the basis of the direct state taxes, the following provisions apply:

(1) In towns having the grinding and slaughter tax obligation, the grinding and slaughter tax—after deducting the one-third of the tax raised for the towns—supersedes the class tax (klassensteuer).

(2) The real estate (grundstücke) designated in § 4 littr. *a* and *b* of the land-tax law of May 21, 1861 (Law Collection, p. 253), and in § 3 of the land-tax law of February 11, 1870 (Law Collection, p. 85), is to be assessed upon the standard of that land-tax amount which it would have to pay if they did not have the right to claim exemption from tax or other favors. These land-tax amounts shall be reckoned by applying the general land-tax per-cent rate to the net proceeds fixed or to be fixed for the real estate in question in accordance with the two laws before mentioned. In the provinces of Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, and Hesse-Nassau, as well as in the county of Meisenheim, this calculation shall be made, so long as the land tax to be regulated anew has not yet been collected, in accordance with the legally fixed or provided tax rates.

(3) Buildings in accordance with § 3, sub. 1, of the law relative to the introduction of a general building tax of May 21, 1861 (Law Collection, page 317, etc.), freed from building tax, with exception of those in the possession of members of the royal house or of the princely house of Hohenzollern, as well as of the Hanoverian royal

house, or of the Kurhessian or ducal Hessian princely houses, shall be assessed in proportion to the use and value, specially appraised according to the principles of the mentioned law, and the building tax calculated thereupon.

(4) The tax upon the transaction of business shall not be taken into account.

[Remark 1 to § 70: Owing to the abolition of the slaughter and grinding tax the provision of § 70, sub. 1, has become obsolete.

Remark 2: In regard to state poor organizations, see remark to § 29.]

§ 71.

The matters relegated in this law to the district governments or sheriffs (Landräthen) shall be attended to in the province of Hanover by the bailiwicks (Landdrosteien) or high sheriff (amtshauftmäuner). In like manner in the province of Hanover the deputations (amtsvertretungen) take the place of county legislatures (Kreistage). Excepted, however, are the county commissions which are to be established in Hanover, also for the individual counties under the presidency of the county captain (kreishauptmann), and whose members and alternates are to be elected by the county legislatures.

Until the royal order mentioned in § 28 has been promulgated the management of the affairs of the poor shall be referred, (*a*) for the province of Schleswig-Holstein, to the government at Schleswig; (*b*) for the communal union of the governmenta district of Wiesbaden, with exception of the city district of Frankfort-on-Main, to the government at Wiesbaden; (*c*) for the governmental district of Sigmaringen, to the government at Sigmaringen.

For the Jade district the matters mentioned in §§ 36, 40 to 57, and 66 shall be referred to a deputation for home affairs in the province of Hanover; otherwise for the mentioned district the competency of the officials shall be regulated by royal proclamation. For the governmental district of Sigmaringen, until a provincial and county representation is introduced, the following is fixed: A commission of the sort mentioned in § 60 shall be established in every superior district (Oberamtsbezirk); the presiding officer shall be the (Oberamtsmann) high sheriff; the other two members and their alternates shall be elected by the several local chief magistrates (mayors, bailiffs, and wardens); in lik e manner shall be elected those members of the deputation for home affairs who are not royal appointees; for the purpose of election the several local chief magistrates shall compose electoral bodies, whose organization shall be arranged by the governmental presidents.

§ 72.

The administration of the central orphan funds for the former duchy of Nassau will be regulated by royal order; until the same is promulgated the provisions of §§ 17 and 19 of the law of December 18, 1848, relative to the administration of public charities (Nassau proclamation journal, p. 303 and following) shall remain in force.

§ 73.

The present law goes into force subject to the provision of § 30, on July 1, 1871. Agreeably to the provisions of this law, measures are to be adopted so that on and after July 1, 1871, every piece of real estate shall belong to a local poor organization possessing distinct frontiers, or shall independently be formed into such a poor organization. The procedure prescribed in §§ 40 and following applies for those contests of poor organizations which are filed for settlement after June 30, 1871 (§ 65, sub. 6, of the federal law of June 6, 1870).

§ 74 contains the provision that, with July 1, 1871, all legal provisions shall go out of force which conflict with the provisions of the present law or which cannot be reconciled therewith. The expiring laws of individual sections are then mentioned by name.

III.

Tariff of Costs Arising from Caring for the Poor which are to be Repaid by Prussian Poor Organizations.

On the ground of § 30 of the federal law of June 6, 1870 (Federal Law Journal, p. 360 etc.), relative to residence entitling to assistance, and of § 35 of the executive law of March 8, 1871 (Law Collection, p. 130, etc.), after hearing the provincial deputations (communal legislatures), the following is fixed:

(1) The tariff rate at which the costs incurred in caring for a sick or disabled needy person in the age of 14 years or more are to be repaid by one Prussian poor organization to another Prussian poor organization, amounts for each day assistance is rendered: (*a*) for localities mentioned in the service-class apportionment, appendix, litt. *b*, of the law of June 25, 1868, relative to the supplying of quarters in time of peace (Federal Law Journal, pp. 544, and following) in the 3rd to the 5th class, 60 pfennigs; (*b*) for localities belonging to the higher service classes 80 pfennigs. Not included herein and to be specially reckoned are the costs mentioned under 2, as well as the cost of clothing supplied.

(2) The tariff rate for costs of necessary medical or surgical treatment or care of the persons mentioned under 1 to be paid by one Prussian poor organization to another Prussian poor organization amounts, inclusive of the cost of medicines, drugs, etc., etc., per diem for all places alike, 20 pfennigs, subject naturally to separate reckoning and liquidation of considerable extraordinary additional expenses necessitated in cases of severe woundings or of contagious diseases.

(3) The day on which the nursing began and the day on which the same ended will be reckoned together as one day.

(4) The above tariff rates apply equally if the nursing (Verpfleging) takes place in or outside of a hospital or poorhouse.

(5) All expenditures which do not fall under 1 and 2 are to be separately reckoned; this applies especially to costs arising in caring for persons under 14 years of age or who are not completely incapacitated.

(6) The present provisions, subject to revision, go into force with the 1st day of September this year; with the same day the tariff of August 21, 1871, and the public notice of July 3, 1872, go out of force.

Berlin, July 2, 1876.

The Minister of the Interior,
Count Eulenburg.

[Remark 1: This tariff fixes the standard for the liquidation of claims of Prussian poor organizations against other Prussian poor organizations, allowance always being made for all claims collected from the same on the ground of the imperial law of June 6, 1870.

If a Prussian poor organization accepts from a non-Prussian poor organization an amount higher than that fixed in the tariff, in case of contest the former must produce facts to justify the height of the amount demanded.

If Prussian poor organizations agree among themselves upon amounts higher than those fixed in the tariff, demands based upon such agreements must be enforced in the civil courts.

Remark 2: For persons who have not yet reached their 14th year, the actually incurred costs are to be reckoned, but naturally (See, further, § 30, par. 2, of the imperial law of June 6, 1870) without allowance for the general administrative expenses of the institution in which they are cared for and for the special fees of poor-physicians who receive fixed remuneration.

Remark 3: The tariff does not fix the standard for claims which Prussian poor organizations have the right to make against the persons assisted themselves or against third obligated parties, (e. g., relatives having the alimentation—obligation),

These can be compelled to pay the extra costs which are not included in the amount fixed by the tariff for cases in which the payment is to be made by a poor organization.

Remark 4: For medical and surgical treatment 20 pfennigs per diem are to be paid, except in cases where there have been considerable unusual extra expenditures, necessitated in cases where wounds have been inflicted, or in cases of severe and contagious disease. In cases of contest, therefore, not only the sort, but also the necessity of the excessive costs incurred in such cases must be proven.

Remark 5: To the costs of 20 pfennigs per diem to be paid for medical and surgical treatment in cases of sickness are to be added the costs arising from calling in a dentist, medical assistant, or midwife.

Remark 6: In regard to the tariff amounts to be calculated according to the service classes (servis-klassen), care must be taken that the tariff rate which is normal for the poor organization having the preliminary obligation is used, even in a case where the poor organization having the preliminary obligation has the needy person cared for and nursed in another place which belongs to a higher service class.

CHARITIES IN THE NETHERLANDS.

[Report by Minister Thayer, of The Hague.]

[From Consular Reports, No. 134.]

Frequent inquiries respecting the system of charities now in vogue in the Netherlands have led me recently to examine the subject somewhat in detail, and I venture to submit the results to the Deparment for the use of any who may be interested in work of this character. The system referred to, though very complex, is exceedingly comprehensive, and the success of its operations has commended it to the careful consideration of many who are interested in charitable undertakings elsewhere.

The law regulating both public and private charities in the Netherlands is founded on the act of 1854, modified by the law of 1870, and is in substance as follows:

CHAPTER I.—ADMINISTRATION.

Section 1.—Institutions of charity, their foundation and their regulation.

ARTICLE 1. Charitable institutions, within the meaning of the present law, are such as have a permanent aim of helping the poor, whether in asylums or otherwise.

ART. 2. The law divides the various kinds of charitable institutions into the four following classes: (1) State, provincial, and communal establishments regulated and administered by the municipal authorities; (2) establishments supported by religious associations designed to aid the poor of those faiths, in accordance with the rules of the said associations; (3) establishments maintained and administered by private persons or by nonreligious associations; (4) mixed establishments, that is to say, institutions managed by civil authorities conjointly with a religious association or private persons.

ART. 3. It shall be the duty of the communal authorities to draw up a list enumerating all the charitable institutions existing in the community, arranging them according to their proper classification under article 2. This list shall always be kept up to date.

ART. 4. The rules of the communal establishments described in article 2 (1) shall, within a time specified by royal decree, be revised by the communal council so as to conform with the provisions of the law. If no rules exist, the communal councils

shall provide them within the same period of time. New charitable institutions belonging to this class shall be created only by virtue of a resolution of the communal council, which resolution shall, at the same time, contain the rules which are to govern the new institution.

ART. 5. The rules of the institutions mentioned in article 2 (4) shall be made by the communal council and the religious or other body associated with it within a period fixed by royal decree and in conformity to the provisions of the law. The provincial states shall see that the rules contain provisions necessary for an orderly administration of their affairs, and that there be nothing in them contrary to the laws and general welfare.

ART. 6. A copy of the resolutions of the communal council and of the rules, made in accordance with articles 4 and 5, shall be transmitted by the burgomaster or the secretary of the commune to the provincial states, who shall acknowledge its receipt within 8 days.

ART. 7. The provisions concerning the creation and the administration of the institutions designated in article 2 (2 and 3) shall be communicated by the managers to the communal authorities within 1 month after the creation of any institution, and all modifications of said provisions shall be made known in the same way within a like period.

If the establishment has other aims beside the care of the poor, the report should be confined to the rules which relate to the latter purpose only. Establishments not making a report within the time specified shall be deprived of the powers accorded by article 1691 of the civil code of the Netherlands, which provides that corporations existing by virtue of law have the same power to make contracts as individuals, unless they are limited in the exercise of this power by public regulations.

ART. 8. All hospitals or workhouses not founded by the State or the province, and comprising in part those mentioned in article 2 (1 and 4), are placed under the supervision of the communal authorities, without prejudice to the privileges granted by virtue of their establishment. The right of local inquiry to determine whether the said hospital or workhouses conform wholly to the purposes for which they were created is reserved.

ART. 9. If the aim of a charitable institution shall undergo a change, the use of its property passes to another exercising the functions which the former has ceased to fulfill. This change shall be effected as follows:

(1) For communal establishments, by the communal council, with the approval of the provincial states.

(2) For religious institutions, by the proper church authorities.

(3) For establishments founded by private persons or associations, by the founders or their heirs, and when these are dead or unknown by the managers of the institution, their acts to be subject to royal approval.

(4) In the case of mixed establishments, the communal council and the religious or private authorities associated therewith shall make the change, subject to the approval of the provincial states.

If this change is not affected within the time fixed by royal decree, a supplementary decree will be issued to meet the case, assigning the reasons therefor. This provision is also applicable to the establishments mentioned in article 2 (3), but only in case the founders and their heirs are dead or unknown.

Section 2.—Reports to be made by the managers of charitable institutions.

ART. 10. All charitable institutions must annually submit to the communal council, within a time and in a manner to be determined by the minister of the interior, a report of the number of persons who have received aid of whatever nature, together with the sums expended and the receipts coming from subscriptions, donations, subsidies, or collections. The private and communal directors of the mixed

institutions must communicate all information that the Government shall deem necessary.

ART. 11. Directors refusing to comply with the provisions of the preceding article are liable to a fine of from $10 to $30.

ART. 12. The managers of religious, mixed, and private charities shall, if requested by the communal authorities, state whether any poor person who applies to the commune for assistance could or could not be aided by their institutions. Directors not complying with the above requirements within 15 days after the request has been made shall be liable to a fine of from $4 to $10.

ART. 13. Public solicitations in aid of charities can only be made after notice of such purpose has been given to the communal authorities 3 days in advance. Such solicitations are only permitted to such institutions as conform to the requirements of article 7. Any establishment which considers itself injured by such prohibition may appeal to the King for redress. This restriction does not apply to collections in churches or among the members of a particular church.

Section 3.—Administration of communal and of mixed charitable institutions.

ART. 14. Buildings belonging to the charitable institutions mentioned in article 2 (1 and 4) must, if possible, be insured against fire for their full value. A neglect to comply with this requirement within 1 month after the establishment of any institution shall render the persons charged with the performance of this duty responsible for all losses caused by such neglect.

ART. 15. All surplus moneys belong to the institutions referred to are required to be invested in registered Government bonds. Nevertheless, with the consent of the provincial states, they may be invested in real estate or interest-bearing securities, as follows:

(1) Loans contracted under a statute requiring the bonds issued in payment to bear the name of the possessor and containing the declaration that they can not be transferred without legal authority.

(2) Mortgages on real estate, provided that the value of the property shall be at least one-third in excess of the amount loaned.

In any case where the provincial states withhold their approval of any investment so made, an appeal may be taken to the King. Trustees who fail to invest the surplus funds of any charity, as required by this article, shall be made responsible for the lawful interest thereon. It is the duty of the ministry to insist upon the enforcement of this provision.

ART. 16. The sanction of the provincial states is not only necessary in case of all loans made by the trustees of charity institutions, but for all conversions, transfers, or sales of property, bonds, or mortgages belonging to such institutions. All realty belonging to such institutions, when leased, must be offered for such purpose publicly, unless the provincial states shall, in special cases, in the interest of the establishment, consent to its being let by private contract. In case the provincial states refuse their authorization, the trustees may appeal to the General Government.

ART. 17. The authority of the provincial states is further necessary for the erection of new buildings and all extraordinary outlays in the way of repairs on old buildings when the expenditure exceeds $200.

ART. 18. Every act contrary to the provisions of articles 15 and 16 which does not receive the approval of the provincial states shall be declared null and void by the court, either upon the application of the ministry or upon the demand of the persons interested. Expenses incurred in violation of the provisions of article 17 shall not be allowed in the accounts of the institution.

ART. 19. All statements of receipts and expenditures of the establishments designated in article 2 (1 and 4) must be submitted to the communal council for approval. In case this approval be refused, appeal may be made to the provincial states.

CHAPTER 2.—ASSISTANCE TO BE GIVEN TO THE POOR.

ART. 20. The work of caring for the poor is intrusted to charitable institutions, either religious or private, in accordance with the following regulations:

ART. 21. Communal establishments shall grant aid to the poor only when thoroughly convinced that the religious or private institutions are not able to furnish it, and in such cases only when it is absolutely necessary.

ART. 22. The guardians of the poor—general, communal, or mixed—or, in default of these, the commune where the indigent person lives determines, without appeal, the necessity for aid to those described in the preceding article.

ART. 23. The commune may grant aid to such persons as are mentioned in article 21 when the conditions upon which it is offered are not in violation of law or public policy.

ART. 24. The expense incurred in the conveyance to and maintenance of insane paupers in asylums shall be paid by the commune where the said pauper is domiciled in case it be not borne by some charitable institution, private charity, or the church. In case it be impossible to determine the exact domicile of the insane pauper, then the said expense shall be borne by the State.

The Government reserves to itself the right to regulate the manner in which all contributions for the benefit of persons mentioned in the preceding paragraph shall be made.

The indigent children of persons convicted of crime, when not able to be separated from their parents, shall be supported by the community at whose charge the prisoners are maintained.

CHAPTER 3.—RECOURSE AGAINST ASSISTED PERSONS OR AGAINST THEIR FAMILIES OR THEIR INHERITANCE.

ART. 25. The incomes of orphans, foundlings, or abandoned children received into the almshouses or other charitable institutions belong to the institutions maintaining said children to the extent necessary for their support.

ART. 26. The expenses of maintenance and burial shall be deducted from the inheritance of persons who die in charitable institutions, in accordance with the provisions of article 25, in case no previous arrangements have been made to this end.

ART. 27. The provisions of articles 25 and 26 do not extend to persons of legal age who are received into the hospitals under other arrangements.

ART. 28. Sums expended for assistance beyond allowances for services may be recovered, without interest, by the authorities at whose charge the pauper is, (1) when the latter's means permit him to make restitution; (2) from relatives bound to furnish him support by virtue of article 376, *et seq.*, of the Netherlands civil code.*

ART. 29. The claims mentioned in articles 25, 26, and 27 are privileged, and take rank immediately after those mentioned in article 1195 of the civil code,† in case they be not included in the latter.

ART. 30. All privileges heretofore granted to charitable institutions or to their successors or assigns in the nature of securing compensation for aid furnished, inconsistent with the above provisions, are hereby declared null and void.

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* Article 376 of the civil code provides that children shall be liable for the support of indigent parents and grandparents. Article 377 of the same code provides that sons-in-law and daughters-in-law shall provide for dependent fathers-in-law and mothers-in-law, etc. Article 378 of the same code provides that the obligations contained in the provisions of the two preceding articles shall be reciprocal.

† Article 1195 of the civil code is as follows: The privileged claims resting against real and personal estates are those hereafter described, and come in the following order: (1) Legal expenses incurred in the administration of the estate, (2) funeral expenses, (3) expenses of the last illness, (4) the wages of servants and laborers for the past year and whatever is due for the current year, (5) claims for necessaries of life furnished to the debtor and his family for the last 6 months, (6) claims of teachers for the last year, and (7) claims of minors or persons under legal disabilities against guardians and executors.

ART. 31. Actions to recover sums expended for maintenance or aid instituted by virtue of the provisions of articles 25, 26, 27, and 28 become outlawed in five years, the period from which the statute commences to run being the 31st of December of the year in which the said sums were expended.

CHAPTER 4.—SUBSIDIES GRANTED BY THE COMMUNES TO CHARITABLE ESTABLISHMENTS.

ART. 32. Hereafter no subsidies shall be granted from the communal treasury to charitable institutions except upon a resolution of the communal council stating the reasons therefor.

ART. 33. This resolution shall state—

(1) That absolute necessity for the subsidy is demonstrated by the statement of receipts and expenditures of the past year and by the estimates of the same for the current year, as given by the institution seeking the subvention.

(2) That the said institution has received all that it can equitably expect from those who can be asked to contribute to its expenses.

(3) That the managers of the said institution have performed their duties conscientiously.

ART. 34. These resolutions must be communicated to the provincial states within 8 days. The provincial states shall see that no subsidies are accorded without an absolute necessity therefor existing; they shall take all measures that they may deem necessary to secure a wise administration of the subsidies granted.

CHAPTER 5.—BEGGARS AND VAGABONDS.

ART. 35. The punishments administered in institutions to beggars and vagabonds shall consist of a partial deprivation of the ordinary supply of food, a diminution of wages, and solitary confinement for a period not exceeding 7 days. Repressive measures can be enforced separately or simultaneously.

ART. 36. A rule of internal government shall be adopted fixing the time and manner of punishment; also the conditions under which beggars and vagabonds shall be allowed to leave the institutions.

ART. 37. A register of all the punishments inflicted in the institution shall be kept, and a copy thereof transmitted every 3 months to the King's procurator at the court of the district to which the establishment belongs.

ART. 38. The cost of transporting to and from as well as the maintaining in institutions devoted to the uses of beggars and vagabonds and their children (when the latter can not be separated from their parents) shall be defrayed by the State.

ART. 39. If the persons described in article 38 possess pensions, incomes, or property of any kind, the same shall be devoted to the reimbursement of the State for its outlay in their behalf.

If an owner of property be received into an endowed institution of charity, recognized as such by the public authorities, or if he be supported by the commune where his domicile is established, the said property, if necessary, shall be converted and the proceeds turned over to the institution which supports the said person; and, should there be any excess over and above the cost of his support, the trustees of the institution shall return the same to the person cared for at the time of his discharge.

ART. 40. All differences arising in institutions classed in article 2 (1 and 4) with regard to appointments, suspensions, or dismissals of managers shall be decided by the Government after a full hearing of the subject-matter in dispute.

ART. 41. Disputes on questions of domicile mentioned in article 24 shall be decided by the Government in case the council of the provincial state shall not be able to reach an agreement.

ART. 42. Whenever the trustees are unable to agree as to the purpose of an institution; or, if it be a charitable one, as to which of the classes under article 2 it be-

longs; or as to the claims which lie against surety bonds or on the contracts entered into between the communes and the charitable institutions for the mutual assistance of the poor, said questions shall be relegated to the judicial authorities for decision.

ART. 43. If the communal council refuses to include in its budget the expenses to which it is made liable under the law, the provision of article 212 of the communal law shall be applicable, *i. e.*, the provincial states shall insert the said expenses in the communal budget. In this case, should the local revenues not suffice and should the council refuse to provide other revenues, the other expenses of the commune shall be reduced by the provincial states in such a manner as to equalize the local receipts and expenditures.

ART. 44. Article 874 of the civil procedure code affords charitable institutions, almshouses, and hospitals, as well as vestry boards of churches of all sects, the privilege of admission to the Pro Deo, in the same manner and with the same advantages that pertain to paupers, without being obliged to produce a certificate of indigence.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

As relief of the poor is declared by the Netherlands constitution to be a constant concern of the Government, so charity has come to be a leading characteristic of the Dutch people. It will be noticed that the law places all eleemosynary institutions under the immediate supervision of the Government, and divides them into the following classes, viz, civil, religious, private or nonreligious, and mixed. Each institution is required to submit a report of its doings to the Government at stated periods.

The work of providing for the poor is largely in the hands of religious or private societies, usually termed nongovernmental associations. These bodies exercise the privilege of granting or refusing aid when asked for, but the civil authorities render assistance in all cases of absolute need when the same can not be obtained elsewhere. Again, should any charitable institution, religious or private, in its annual report exhibit a want of means to carry on its legitimate undertakings and show that all private appeals to this end have been unavailing, it then becomes the duty of the authorities of the commune in which the institution is located to make good the deficit.

It will be noted, also, that the law makes the domicile of aid the locality where the need has been found to exist, whether it be the legal domicile or otherwise. Begging or vagrancy is prohibited by the penal code, and in all places provided with institutions of charity it is a punishable offense; but the law is more or less rigidly enforced according to the instructions of the chiefs of police and burgomasters. In the larger towns the offender is usually conducted out of the community, while in other places the punishment is seclusion in one of the State work colonies, the minimum penalty being 12 days and the maximum 3 years.

Of the public establishments devoted to charity two are worthy of special note, the General Welfare Society (Maatschappy van het Nut van't Algemeen) and the Society of Benevolence (Maatschappy van Weldadigheden). The former was founded by Jan Nieuwenhuis in 1784, its purpose being to provide free education for children of the poor. It has at present 325 distinct centers of action and a membership of 16,300 persons. It aims to improve the condition of the lower classes by maintaining schools for their benefit, in which they are not only instructed in arts and sciences, but also educated to the habit of economy, an encouragement to which is afforded through the means of savings institutions which allow a liberal interest to all depositors of the working class.

The Maatschappy van Weldadigheden, or Society of Benevolence, was founded by the Dutch philanthropist General van den Bosch, his idea being that the best antidote for poverty is the furnishing of agricultural training and employment to able-bodied destitute and deserving persons. The fact that the savage man, without instruction, implements, habitation, or capital, was able to make the earth yield him the means of subsistence led General van den Bosch to conclude that the indigent

classes among civilized men, provided with all these advantages, ought to be better able to maintain themselves by tilling the soil. Through his instrumentality, in the year 1820, there were nine farms set apart for the use of the poorer classes, two of which were for the exclusive use of paupers. The experiment proving in some sense a failure, the latter were, in 1854, turned over to the Government, and thereafter became places of discipline or punishment. Very recent reports show that 1,830 persons are now furnished with employment and subsistence on the several farms.

I can not illustrate in any better way the success of the various charitable organizations named in article 2 of the law referred to than by the annexed table of statistics, containing, first, a minute report of each institution; second, the number of persons assisted annually; third, the moneys devoted to charitable purposes, and how the same were procured; fourth, the total expenditures of the various charities; and, fifth, the number of persons placed in the way of obtaining an honest livelihood. I add a detailed report of the peoples' savings banks from the year 1840 to 1888, inclusive, showing to what extent the poor of the working classes have availed themselves of the use of these institutions and the benefits derived therefrom.

Table showing the number of the various kinds of charitable institutions, in the Netherlands.

Year.	Domiciliary aid.	Aiding poor too proud to beg.	Distributing food in winter.	Aiding pauper mothers in child-bed.	Houses of charity.	Hospitals.	Work-houses.	Other institutions furnishing employment.	Total.
Municipal and mixed.									
1854	1,212	2	28	3	187	35	17	13	1,497
1876	1,186	1	17	1	185	38	13	7	1,448
1877	1,184	1	17	1	186	38	14	7	1,458
1878	1,184	1	17	1	185	37	13	7	1,445
1879	1,169	1	17	1	182	37	13	7	1,427
1880	1,166	1	17	1	182	37	13	7	1,424
1881	1,152	1	17	1	181	37	13	7	1,409
1882	1.150	1	17	1	182	38	13	7	1,409
1883	1,146	1	16	1	182	37	13	7	1,403
1884	1,141	1	16	1	182	36	13	7	1,397
1885	1,130	2	16	1	181	36	13	7	1,386
1886	1,130	2	16	1	181	36	13	7	1,386
1888	1,131	2	16	1	183	35	13	6	1,386
Religious.									
1854	2,373	92	5	1	277	14	8	6	2,776
1876	2,748	133	6	3	344	23	5	6	3,268
1877	2,760	135	6	3	345	24	5	6	3,284
1878	2,763	135	7	3	346	24	5	6	3,289
1879	2,769	136	7	3	351	24	3	6	3,299
1880	2,783	135	7	3	350	24	3	6	3,311
1881	2,789	134	7	3	351	24	3	6	3,313
1882	2,791	135	7	3	353	24	3	6	3,322
1883	2,798	135	6	3	353	24	3	5	3,327
1884	2,798	136	6	3	354	24	3	5	3,329
1885	2,800	138	6	4	356	24	3	5	3,336
1886	2,804	138	6	5	357	25	2	5	3,342
1888	2,872	145	6	5	349	27	2	4	3,410
Private.									
1854	92	51	122	45	223	8	16	59	616
1876	95	72	94	54	225	16	15	40	611
1877	92	74	91	54	225	16	15	38	605
1878	94	75	91	53	227	17	15	38	610
1879	93	76	90	53	231	18	16	40	817
1880	95	77	90	53	232	18	15	41	621
1881	99	78	86	51	232	20	14	40	620
1882	100	79	87	51	231	19	15	40	622
1883	103	84	87	51	232	20	14	40	631
1884	102	86	87	51	233	21	14	39	633
1885	103	90	87	50	233	21	14	40	638
1886	104	91	87	50	235	21	14	40	642
1888	168	96	90	49	214	20	14	38	689

Table showing the number of the various kinds of charitable institutions, etc.—Continued.

Year.	Domiciliary aid.	Aiding poor too proud to beg.	Distributing food in winter.	Aiding pauper mothers in childbed.	Houses of charity.	Hospitals.	Workhouses.	Other institutions furnishing employment.	Total.
Total.									
1884	3,677	145	155	49	687	67	37	78	4,889
1876	4,029	206	117	58	754	77	33	53	5,327
1877	4,036	210	114	58	756	78	34	51	5,337
1878	4,041	211	115	57	758	78	33	51	5,344
1879	4,031	213	114	57	764	79	32	53	5,343
1880	4,044	213	114	57	764	79	31	54	5,356
1881	4,036	213	110	55	764	81	30	53	5,342
1882	4,041	215	111	55	766	81	31	53	5,353
1883	4,047	220	109	55	767	81	30	52	5,361
1884	4,041	223	109	55	769	81	30	51	5,35[illegible]
1885	4,033	230	109	55	870	81	30	52	5,3[illegible]
1886	4,038	231	109	56	773	82	29	52	5,37[illegible]
1888	4,171	243	112	55	745	82	29	48	5,4[illegible]

Table showing the number of poor people assisted from 1872 to 1888.

Year.	During entire year.			Temporarily.		
	Married.	Single.	Total.	Married.	Single.	Total.
1888:						
Aid from municipality direct	18,015	14,185	32,200	34,667	15,635	50,302
Aid from institutions of domiciliary aid	35,358	22,096	57,449	42,300	12,585	54,885
Aid from societies to poor ashamed to beg	1,409	568	1,977	4,965	870	5,835
Total	54,777	36,849	91,626	81,922	29,090	111,022
1886	56,761	36,501	93,262	91,581	31,606	123,187
1885	54,194	35,931	90,125	88,660	32,735	121,395
1884	55,202	37,449	92,651	84,438	32,708	117,146
1883	52,378	38,322	90,700	88,614	35,202	123,816
1882	53,152	37,717	90,869	88,296	34,105	122,401
1881	51,614	37,587	88,336	89,800	34,138	123,507
1880	50,788	37,566	88,354	92,081	35,577	128,178
1879	51,425	37,492	88,917	88,750	34,793	123,543
1878	50,568	37,400	87,968	82,647	32,507	115,154
1877	51,067	36,985	88,052	80,713	31,853	112,566
1876	50,466	37,867	88,333	82,758	32,099	114,857
1875	50,327	38,821	89,148	78,759	29,596	108,355
1874	42,105	39,086	91,191	76,063	31,431	107,494
1873	52,417	39,936	92,353	77,769	31,725	109,494
1872	53,194	40,370	93,564	82,494	31,930	114,424

Year.	Total.		
	Married.	Single.	Total.
1888:			
Aid from municipality direct	52,682	29,783	82,465
Aid from institutions of domiciliary aid	77,653	34,681	112,334
Aid from societies to poor ashamed to beg	6,374	1,438	7,812
Total	136,709	65,902	202,611
1886	148,342	68,107	216,449
1885	142,854	68,666	211,520
1884	139,640	70,157	209,797
1883	140,992	73,524	214,516
1882	141,448	71,822	213,270
1881	141,414	71,825	216,643
1880	143,389	73,143	216,532
1879	140,175	72,285	212,460
1878	133,215	69,907	203,122
1877	131,780	68,838	200,618
1876	133,224	69,966	203,190
1875	129,086	68,417	197,503
1874	128,168	70,517	198,685
1873	130,186	71,661	201,847
1872	135,688	72,300	207,988

Table showing the amount of voluntary charitable contributions and subsidies from 1872 to 1888.

Year.	Contributions from domiciliary collections.	Subsidies given by—		Total.
		Other institutions.	Provinces and communes.	
1888:	*Florins.*	*Florins.*	*Florins.*	*Florins.*
Municipal and mixed institutions	129, 640	33, 008	1, 454, 928	1, 617, 576
Religious institutions	2, 004, 393	89, 523	121, 733	2, 215, 649
Private institutions	58, 714	140	2, 750	61, 604
Total	2, 192, 747	122, 671	1, 579, 411	3, 894, 829
1886	3, 746, 044	420, 756	2, 253, 348	6, 419, 968
1885	3, 669, 799	425, 732	2, 242, 656	6, 348, 178
1884	3, 658, 968	500, 835	2, 380, 988	6, 540, 791
1883	3, 860, 196	502, 620	2, 335, 269	6, 697, 995
1882	3, 598, 102	444, 027	2, 147, 019	6, 189, 205
1881	3, 585, 203	447, 237	2, 106, 756	6, 139, 230
1880	3, 430, 684	476, 405	2, 069, 521	5, 976, 530
1879	3, 465, 772	437, 821	2, 014, 609	5, 918, 202
1878	3, 371, 722	441, 692	2, 021, 502	5, 834, 916
1877	3, 258, 310	434, 011	1, 977, 157	5, 669, 478
1876	3, 322, 542	402, 928	2, 012, 861	5, 738, 331
1875	3, 215, 231	464, 252	2, 042, 181	5, 721, 664
1874	3, 150, 063	417, 737	2, 028, 161	5, 595, 961
1873	3, 278, 013	419, 936	2, 064, 796	5, 762, 745
1872	3, 220, 973	396, 809	2, 147, 456	5, 765, 238
1871	3, 222, 222	398, 792	2, 230, 367	5, 851, 381

Table showing the total expenditures for charity made by municipalities and all other institutions (except those furnishing work) from 1854 to 1888.

Year.	Amount.	Year.	Amount.
	Florins.		*Florins.*
1854	9, 156, 544	1871	10, 503, 092
1855	9, 088, 569	1872	10, 842, 314
1856	8, 906, 132	1873	10, 574, 511
1857	8, 517, 898	1874	10, 638, 831
1858	8, 480, 745	1875	10, 637, 211
1859	8, 563, 357	1876	10, 957, 620
1860	8, 795, 721	1877	11, 012, 424
1861	9, 022, 527	1878	11, 236, 678
1862	9, 084, 548	1879	11, 145, 835
1863	8, 907, 209	1880	11, 457, 864
1864	8, 970, 456	1881	11, 453, 945
1865	8, 941, 478	1882	11, 573, 980
1866	9, 448, 646	1883	11, 799, 308
1867	10, 647, 419	1884	11, 817, 522
1868	10, 877, 232	1885	11, 928, 066
1869	10, 812, 396	1886	12, 197 773
1870	10, 696, 558	1888	14, 667, 219

Table showing the number of persons aided by furnishing them work from 1870 to 1888.

Year.	In special work yards.	Otherwise.	Total.
1870	4,108	4,099	8,207
1871	3,586	4,355	7,941
1872	3,094	4,342	7,436
1873	2,770	4,134	6,904
1874	2,586	3,739	6,325
1875	1,852	3,412	5,264
1876	1,721	2,981	4,702
1877	1,476	2,926	4,402
1878	1,456	2,896	4,352
1879	1,561	3,172	4,733
1880	1,687	3,553	5,240
1881	1,486	3,205	4,691
1882	1,136	2,799	3,935
1883	1,159	2,512	3,671
1884	1,103	2,646	3,749
1885	1,247	3,128	4,375
1886	1,336	3,206	4,542
1888	1,479	3,327	4,806

SAVINGS BANKS.

Table showing the number, deposits, etc., of savings banks in the Netherlands from 1840 to 1888.

Year.	Total number.	Deposits (interest not included.)	Payments, including interest paid.	Receipts.	Expenses of management.	Reserve fund.
		Florins.	*Florins.*	*Florins.*	*Florins.*	*Florins.*
1840	46	622,000	610,000	54,000	6,000	68,000
1845	57	978,000	833,000	81,000	8,000	198,000
1850	82	1,313,000	1,065,000	92,000	10,000	188,000
1855	101	2,023,000	1,637,000	148,000	12,000	377,000
1860	136	2,311,000	2,004,000	221,000	18,000	676,000
1865	158	3,846,000	3,042,000	303,000	22,000	1,384,000
1870	171	3,987,000	4,642,000	566,000	51,000	1,745,000
1871	189	4,866,000	3,801,000	544,000	46,000	2,023,000
1872	196	5,572,000	4,465,000	418,000	46,000	2,180,000
1873	209	6,257,000	4,998,000	471,000	57,000	2,304,000
1874	219	7,126,000	5,318,000	518,000	63,000	2,751,000
1875	223	8,792,000	5,787,000	647,000	72,000	3,032,000
1876	259	9,971,000	7,810,000	772,000	85,000	2,985,000
1877	266	10,790,000	8,238,000	886,000	98,000	3,180,000
1878	269	10,800,000	9,235,000	1,004,000	107,000	3,536,000
1879	274	10,712,000	11,167,000	1,068,000	124,000	3,841,000
1880	273	12,082,000	10,087,000	1,164,000	122,000	4,228,000
1881:						
Private savings banks	269	12,565,000	11,156,000	8,818,000	124,000	4,713,000
Postal savings banks	1	1,127,000	277,000	13,000	58,000	.....
1882:						
Private savings banks	283	12,692,000	11,668,000	1,974,000	167,000	5,016,000
Postal savings banks	1	2,158,000	1,033,000	57,000	55,000	.....
1883:						
Private savings banks	278	12,896,000	11,761,000	2,027,000	159,000	5,409,000
Postal savings banks	1	2,884,000	1,752,000	104,000	62,000	.....
1884:						
Private savings banks	276	13,562,000	12,124,000	2,069,000	165,000	5,853,000
Postal savings banks	1	3,857,000	2,523,000	148,000	74,000	.....
1885:						
Private savings banks	276	13,845,000	13,187,000	2,127,000	165,000	6,344,000
Postal savings banks	1	4,921,000	3,342,000	199,000	82,000	.....
1886 (postal savings banks)	1	6,616,000	4,310,000	.....	.....	.....
1887 (postal savings banks)	1	7,643,000	5,669,000	.....	.....	.....
1888 (postal savings banks)	1	9,283,000	6,773,000	.....	.....	.....

Table showing the number, deposits, etc., of savings banks in the Netherlands, etc.—Cont'd.

Year.	Balance due to depositors at end of year.	Number of pass books at end of year.	Averages at end of year.		
			Balance due per inhabitant.	Number of pass books per inhabitant.	Value of pass books.
	Florins.		*Florins.*		*Florins.*
1840	1,192,000	19,281	0.41	7	62
1845	1,880,000	24,200	0.62	8	78
1850	3,811,000	30,396	1.24	11	125
1855	3,997,000	42,081	1.23	13	95
1860	5,545,000	54,374	1.66	16	102
1865	7,973,000	74,151	2.26	21	107
1870	11,105,000	89,704	3.07	24	124
1871	13,207,000	97,940	3.63	27	135
1872	14,755,000	108,502	4.02	30	136
1873	16,617,000	118,656	4.47	32	140
1874	18,908,000	132,061	5.02	35	143
1875	23,105,000	148,922	6.06	39	155
1876	26,723,000	174,381	6.91	45	153
1877	30,379,000	190,661	7.74	49	159
1878	32,782,000	202,359	8.23	51	162
1879	33,303,000	208,487	8.25	52	160
1880	36,671,000	224,069	9.08	55	164
1881:					
Private savings banks	39,504,000	234,552	9.60	57	168
Postal savings banks	859,000	22,831	0.21	6	38
1882:					
Private savings banks	41,760,000	243,044	9.65	60	172
Postal savings banks	2,019,000	46,242	0.48½	11	44
1883:					
Private savings banks	44,181,000	258,300	10.45½	61	171
Postal savings banks	2,218,000	67,922	0.76	16	47
1884:					
Private savings banks	47,023,000	264,094	10.99	62	178
Postal savings banks	4,651,000	90,798	1.00	21	51
1885:					
Private savings banks	49,233,000	270,380	11.36	62	182
Postal savings banks	6,368,000	112,308	1.47	26	75
1886 (postal savings banks)	8,865,000	139,989	.....	.....	.....
1887 (postal savings banks)	11,152,000	169,027	.....	.....	.....
1888 (postal savings banks)	13,980,000	201,763	.....	.....	.....

SAMUEL R. THAYER,
Minister.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
The Hague, August 19, 1891.

THE MONTI DI PIETÀ OR PUBLIC LOAN OFFICE OF FLORENCE.

[Report by Consul Crosby—From Commercial Relations for 1878.]

I have the honor to submit the following information regarding one of the most important and interesting institutions throughout all Italy—though I have confined the details of this report to my own district—the Monti di Pietà, or public loan office.

The original inventor and principal promoter of a Government loan institution in Italy—from whence it was introduced into other countries of Europe—was Bernardino da Feltri, a celebrated priest, somewhere about the end of the fifteenth century. In the year 1488, while preaching in the church of Santa Croce, he made a powerful appeal to his hearers in favor of their indigent fellow-citizens, at the same time declaiming loudly against the usury practiced by the Jews, who had long been devouring the substance of the poor of Florence, and counseled them to establish a public pawnbroking institution—such an one as had already been projected some eighteen years before, and for which the rules and regulations were already prepared. Seven

years later, Canonico Marco Strozzi, who followed up the idea of Bernardino, succeeded in procuring the banishment of the Jews from Florence, as well as the passing of a law by the republic, establishing a public loan office or monti di pietà.

The new institution immediately became a theme of agitation among the schools of theology, and divided them into parties. Some were in favor of gratuitous loans, in order to avoid the slightest suspicion of usury; others contended that a small amount of interest ought to be exacted to pay the current expenses of the office. This last opinion prevailed, and the authority of the Vatican to put the scheme into execution was obtained. Paul II, Sixtus IV, Innocent VIII, Julius II, and Leo X, one after the other, commended the institution and accorded it their protection.

The principal conditions upon which the institution did business with the public were: 1st. The loan should be made for only a certain term. 2d. Those who asked money should deposit goods or chattels of a corresponding value, which might be sold after the limit had expired. 3d. That the borrower should pay a small fee to be applied to the payment of employés of the office, rent of warehouses, and other similar current expenses.

Usury had been driven from the banking-houses of the Christians by ecclesiastical censure, but it had found means to intrench itself behind the counters of the Jews, from whence it was in time dislodged by the repeal of all existing laws which had so long favored the rapacity of the money-lender.

The first establishment was set to work upon the modest sum of 2,891 scudi ($2,891 silver), which sum was raised by gratuitous loans, donations, and deposits. In 1530 its capital had, by means of continued gifts and government assistance, already reached the respectable figure of 37,789 scudi ($37,789 silver). All profits over and above the actual expenses of the enterprise were employed in various ways. At first they were divided among the pledgers, provided always that they preferred their claims within a certain period. The surplus was distributed among the poor through the agency of the city monks.

From its foundation, now nearly four centuries, through all the changes that Florence has suffered from tumults, sieges, anarchy, revolutions, plagues, and foreign oppression, change of dynasties, and general ruin, to the present day, this truly beneficial institution has never yet failed to respond to the call of its clients; and what is more, has never for a single moment lost sight of the first great principle upon which it was established—*i. e.*, to aid, and not to enrich itself at the expense of, the suffering poor.

On the 1st of January, 1876, to the two old-established offices (*presti*) and their dependencies was added a large new central establishment (*azienda*), especially erected for the reception, placing, and sale of pledges. The internal arrangement of this building are most complete. The mechanical appliances for the reception, storing, and removal of goods, ventilation, precautions in case of and against fire, clerks' offices, accommodations even for a crowding public, auction rooms, etc., are all that could be desired.

The building is in charge of two persons only, who are the stewards to the administration. These stewards are held, under heavy security, responsible to the establishment for the number, quality, integrity, and safe keeping of all the pledges received, as well as for all moneys accruing from the sale of unredeemed pledges, and from the interest on those which may be withdrawn. These two stewards hold their places for a term (*condotta*) which lasts two years, at the end of which they render account to the administration. Their duties alternate, one being the *lender* for a twelvemonth, and then changing places with his colleague, who has meanwhile been doing duty as *receiver*, so that each performs the same task during an entire term.

The first year is called the pledging year (*anno dell' impegnatura*), and the second the liquidating year (*anno di liquidazione*), because the pledges can not be again renewed on the same ticket, nor at the same rate of appraisement. During his second

year, every object unredeemed is sold by auction, so that on December 31, the stewards find their magazines entirely empty, and present their balance sheet for approval. The exactitude with which these accounts are kept is worthy of the highest admiration. At the close of the last term, their cash account showed a deficiency of 34 francs only in a total of 9,800,000 francs, and this, too, in a country where counterfeit paper money is so abundant as to require a careful inspection of every note received.

On feast days the central office is closed, but the smaller ones are kept open until midday, to meet the wants of the more necessitous class of poor.

The account rendered for the year 1876 gives the following:

Details.	Number.	Value.
		Lire.
Pledges	244,365	5,933,553
Precious effects	126,280	4,887,607
Other pledges, such as clothing, household goods, etc	118,085	1,045,946
Average number of daily pledges in 315 days	773	.....

After a careful examination into the workings of the Monti di Pietà, one can not but feel convinced that the institution, besides being one of vast public utility, has even superior claims for consideration as an institution of public beneficence. It is by no means rare to find among its clients persons of high social position, as well as merchants, shopkeepers, commercial travelers, employers, and foreigners, seeking there a remedy for a momentary financial embarrassment, for assistance in some commercial enterprise, or to make good a sudden loss. Besides its usefulness in these cases, its beneficial character is shown in the fact that nearly all the pledges made by the indigent poor do not, even when they are allowed to remain a whole year in pledge, pay to the institution the expenses of their administration; whereas in most countries are to be found the ordinary pawnshops, where a low valuation is put upon the article offered, and enormous rates of interest are charged, without a corresponding benefit to the poor persons who may be forced to place themselves in the hands of unscrupulous usurers.

SCHUYLER CROSBY.

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